

The Speech Teacher

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The SPEECH TEACHER

VOL. VIII, No. 3

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ORAL COMMUNICATION IN A TECHNOLOGICAL WORLD

Francis H. Horn

NEARLY thirty years ago at the American University at Cairo, in Egypt, I taught a speech course using a new textbook which declared in its introduction: "It can hardly be denied that skill in speech is more important today, and more essential in all fields, than it has ever been." The historian of speech, remembering Cicero and Quintilian and the ideal of the "complete orator", the *vir bonus dicendi peritus*, the good man and able speaker, may perhaps question the statement. But what prompted it was the development of modern means of oral communication, especially the radio. Technology had made it possible for man to be heard and to influence his fellows through speaking far beyond the confines of the Roman forum and the Roman senate. At the same time, the increasingly complex political, economic,

and technical world which scientific progress had helped to create in the twentieth century made oral communication ever more important in the conduct of man's daily life.

Since that textbook was written in 1929-30, the world has undergone further technological development that dwarfs the achievements of the first quarter of this century. In fact, in the past twenty-five years, man's technological progress has perhaps been greater than in all the rest of history. Yet as General David Sarnoff of RCA has observed in a discussion of the "Fabulous Future", we are only on the threshold of the technological age. "The dominant physical fact in the next quarter-century," he writes, "will be technological progress unprecedented in kind and in volume."

Let me speak primarily of advances in science and technology which will have a direct bearing on oral communication. First is the area of travel and communication itself. I need scarcely remind you of the speed of modern air transport, which some day will enable us to go around the world in less than twenty-four hours. It won't be long, moreover, before we can telephone to Bombay or Bangkok as easily and quickly as we now phone Bangor or Balti-

This article was presented as the principal address at the 1958 convention of the New England Speech Association, held in Boston, November 28, 1958. Mr. Horn is President of the University of Rhode Island. As a university administrator, he presents several important points of view: (1) oral communication is of primary significance in a scientifically dominated world; (2) speech training should be a part of the general education of every student; (3) training in effective speaking is more important for the average student than training in effective writing; (4) institutions should take steps to correct this situation, by devoting more time to speech training.

more. The voice of radio and television will likewise soon circle the globe. Perhaps even more important than the miraculous annihilation of space will be the way in which these means of communication will pervade our daily lives. The time is not far off when everyone in this country will have a radio in his pocket, a TV set in his room, and a telephone in his car.

This means, it seems to me, that everywhere in the world, but especially in the more advanced technological countries, oral communication will accompany more and more of man's waking hours and assume an ever greater share of his total communication pattern. It is inevitable that there will be less written communication of all kinds. Individuals will read less because their information, knowledge, and entertainment will come more and more via the spoken word over the mass mediums. Even education will come increasingly to be carried on by means of oral communication.

A second technological development with major implications for oral communication is the continuing mechanization of life and the spread of automation. It is expected that production per man-hour of work in the United States will double in less than twenty-five years. The result will further accelerate the movement that began with the Industrial Revolution by which the burden of toil is gradually being lifted from man's shoulders and his standard of living is continuously raised. The National Association of Manufacturers in a pamphlet issued a few years ago forecast a future in which mankind would at last be freed of back-breaking toil forever. The editors of *Fortune* in 1955 predicted a spendable income in 1980 for the average American family of \$8,000, compared to the figure then of \$4,000. More-

over, they indicate that this income will be earned in a work week of only thirty-five hours, compared to the 1955 figure of forty-one hours. I am convinced that the figure is more likely to be thirty or thirty-five hours. But in any case, one result of this trend will be more leisure than any people as a whole has ever known before.

A third development that will influence oral communication springs from further advances in medical science. Man will be healthier and live longer, in full possession of his mental and physical powers, than he has ever dreamed of. In time, the person who lives only to the biblical three score years and ten will be thought to have died young, and the centenarian will be the rule rather than the rare exception. Consequently, man will have more years of productive life and in his later years a great deal more leisure than he has heretofore enjoyed.

A shorter work week, a longer and healthier life, and considerably greater leisure will give man much more time for diverse interests not connected with making a living. I am persuaded that much of this additional time available to man will be spent in group activities in which oral communication is basic. Americans have a unique tradition of group action through voluntary agencies. DeTocqueville in his famous appraisal of the United States over a century ago emphasized this distinctive tendency of Americans to band together voluntarily to solve some problem or meet some need. As the world shrinks in size and its problems become more complex, as the citizen becomes more puzzled and frustrated in his attempts to understand and solve these complicated problems, he will certainly turn more and more to group activity and utilize more of his increasing leisure for group delibera-

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tion and group action. The post-war group activity on behalf of the nation's public schools, illustrates this point. Problems that confront us in foreign policy, in segregation, in urban renewal, and in many other critical areas will be solved through the group process, and fundamental to that process is oral communication.

Let me discuss in some detail one area in which oral communication is of primary importance—that of international relations. Our technological progress has turned the earth into a very small world. On this shrinking globe, every man is indeed his brother's keeper. An American can no more isolate himself from events in Berlin or Beirut, than he can shut himself off from the sun and the rain. His future is dependent more on Khrushchev and Mao Tso-Tung, on Nasser and Nehru, than on the man next door.

At the same time, science and technology have created such weapons of mass destruction that the future of the world, certainly of civilization if not of mankind itself, hangs in the balance. Under this threat, and in the light of the world's having become a small community geographically if not politically, people and nations must work positively and energetically for mutual understanding and respect, for cooperation and peace, and ultimately, for the "one world" which may well be the only alternative to annihilation. Our ideal must not be a divided world of peaceful coexistence, but rather one in which, according to the old Chinese saying, under the heavens, there is one nation, and within the four seas, all men are brothers.

I would like to suggest that the single most important contribution to producing this kind of a world can be made by oral communication. The contribution will be made in two ways. The first is

through the agencies of international cooperation—such organizations as the United Nations and its subdivisions, NATO, the Council of Europe, and the thousand and one other committees, councils, associations, etc., that are working for understanding, peace, and progress through joint action at the international level. They all operate, or should operate, through the democratic techniques of discussion, deliberation, and decision. Basic to these techniques is effective speaking, persuasive speaking, whether in the corridors of buildings, in the bars and cocktail lounges frequented by delegates and representatives, around the conference table, or from the rostrum of the assembly hall. And behind oral communication in the agencies themselves stands similar communication in cabinets and parliaments, on street corners and in public squares, as issues are debated and action determined. Nor must we forget radio and TV and the part they play on the national and international scene—so much more important than the press and written communication in the vast areas of the earth where illiteracy is still prevalent.

The second way in which oral communication contributes to bringing about one world at peace is through people-to-people contacts. Such contact is the most effective way to overcome misunderstanding between people, to break down prejudice, to correct misinformation. Travel, especially educational and cultural exchange, offers a major means to international understanding and ultimately to international amity—provided there is communication, oral communication. There is a problem of language, of course, but lack of a mutually comprehended language is not an insuperable barrier to oral communication. Incidentally, present emphasis in

America on the study of foreign language misses the point. What is needed is not study of the traditional French, Spanish, or German, if what we are concerned about is America's position in a divided world, but study of Arabic, Hindu, Russian, and Chinese, to name only the most important languages. Ultimately, there is only one solution to communication among peoples speaking several hundred languages—some common tongue, a second language that everyone speaks. How to attain it is set forth in a recent book by Professor Marie Pei, *One Language for the World and How To Achieve It*. I recommend it to all who are interested in oral communication.

Until such a common language is in wide use, we must continue to get along as we do today, by what oral communication we can achieve, through translation or otherwise. But the problem of oral communication even within one language is extremely complicated in today's technological world. As science and technology, economics and sociology, philosophy and psychology produce new discoveries and assert new concepts, effective communication becomes extremely difficult. Whole new vocabularies have developed in many fields, yet even well educated individuals in other fields are ignorant of them. Knowledge has expanded so rapidly that no one can keep up with it. The result has been a breakdown in communication—both oral and written. Specialists find it increasingly difficult to communicate with non-specialists, specialists in one field with specialists in other fields. Specialists even within the same field have trouble in communicating with their colleagues. I understand, for example, that speech scientists and speech teachers no longer meet in the same national convention!

It is imperative that in a world dependent increasingly upon oral communication, a common language within each language that all can understand must be developed. Without it, effective oral communication, upon which so much of our future progress rests, breaks down. To achieve such a common language in English poses one of the most difficult challenges facing teachers of speech.

Let me turn now to some of the implications for education of what I have been saying about oral communication in a technological world. I have stressed the importance of such communication today and the significant contribution it will make to the world's future development. It is necessary, therefore, that in our schools and colleges we give serious attention to the task of developing in our students the ability for effective oral communication. What does this ability mean? What is effective speech, for example?

It certainly is not synonymous with public speaking. The ability to address or to sway large crowds is a very useful one—even though in our time it has as often been used for evil or destructive ends as for the opposite—and is an important aspect of oral communication; but far too much attention has been given to it in traditional school and college courses in speech.

Effective speech, however, goes far beyond the more restricted connotation of every-day communication with one's fellows. It is not enough to try to develop in students the ability to express themselves correctly, fluently, and effectively in their contacts with others under the varying circumstances that modern life provides, though this must surely be the basis of a beginning speech course. Certainly the ability to listen effectively should be an important aspect of speech

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instruction. The former president of the Speech Association of America, Dr. W. Norwood Brigance, in a recent article,¹ puts his finger on the matter when he writes: "Communication looks at the whole *process* of speech: what is said, to whom, under what conditions, and in what frame of reference. It may even concern itself with what is not said, and why."

But even this admirable statement does not go far enough in postulating a philosophy of education in speech. He has not set the ideal for speech instruction as high as it should be set. Effective speaking cannot, I believe, be separated from effective thinking. And though I admit that we know all too little about how to teach people to think, doing so remains the primary goal of the educational process. The American scholar, Emerson said in his famous Phi Beta Kappa address, was man thinking. But in our day, that is not enough. If all our thinking were done by Thoreaus sitting by Walden Ponds, the world would be lost indeed. We need articulate man—man thinking on his feet, or in a chair, if you wish, in the presence of others, communicating his thoughts orally to his fellows. The development of such articulateness, which involves both sound thinking and effective presentation of thought, is what we must aim at in courses in effective speech.

Increasingly we can, if we will, make such courses perhaps the most significant ones in the college curriculum for the development of critical thinking. At one time, courses in rhetoric—now the traditional freshman composition course—or in logic or mathematics were regarded as primary in this respect. But as oral communication comes increasingly to dominate man's total communi-

cation pattern, the study of oral communication should provide a major medium for teaching the ability to think.

This means, of course, that teachers of speech must be concerned with both technique and content, to use the phraseology of the old controversy. I suspect, however, that far too many teachers of speech are still emphasizing the *how* of speaking without adequate attention to the *what*. With the mass means of communication today, never before has it been so essential to learn to separate the true from the false, the objectively presented material from that which is biased or colored. It should be one of the purposes of any basic speech course to help the student to make these distinctions. Incidentally, unless the teacher himself is an able thinker and can himself demonstrate discrimination in appraising communication, it is unlikely that he can help the student to develop these critical powers.

But the ideal for speech instruction must go even further and concern itself not only with truth but with ethics. It is not enough that the speech course teach the student to recognize falsehood and bias. It must inspire him not to resort to them himself. Effective speaking without the ethical ideal can lead to those who like the ancient sophists, make the worse appear the better cause. All too often such is the outcome for those students who best learn the powers of persuasive speaking. If they end up doing TV commercials, they deserve their fate!

I think we would do well to hold before us once again the Ciceronian ideal of the orator, the good man and able speaker. "The art of eloquence," Cicero wrote in his *De Orators*, "is something greater, and collected from more sciences and studies than people imagine." He goes on to say that the orator must

¹W. Norwood Brigance, "On Talking a New Language," *Q.J.S.* (October, 1958) 301.

have "attained the knowledge of everything important, and of all liberal arts" because "unless there be beneath the surface matter understood and felt by the speaker, oratory becomes an empty and almost puerile flow of words."

But whether one's sights are set this high or are more modest, it should be evident that *today's world requires that speech be a part of a student's general education. I have suggested that in our technological world and the even more fabulous world of tomorrow, effective speaking may be more important for the average individual than effective writing.* Yet our schools and colleges still fail to see this. In many quarters, speech is not recognized as an integral part of general education. *General Education in a Free Society*, which in 1945 set forth a new general education program for Harvard, did not concern itself with speech. *The Idea and Practice of General Education* (1950), which set forth the University of Chicago's remarkable program, also failed to include speech.

On the other hand *Higher Education for American Democracy*, the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education (1947), emphasized as "perhaps the least debatable of the objectives of general education," the ability "to understand the ideas of others and to express one's own effectively . . . by tongue or pen." (53) Similarly, *Toward General Education*, one of the first statements to come from the post-war general education movement, (1948) sets as a goal of general education both in secondary school and college the ability to "speak and write clearly and with considerable effectiveness." (54) Even more significant perhaps is the committee report by members of the faculties of Andover, Exeter and Lawrenceville and of Harvard, Princeton, and Yale (1952) *General Education in School and Col-*

lege. The report puts its finger on the deplorable situation concerning oral communication: "Since speech is of small academic concern to the college and rarely enters into judgment of a student's readiness for college work, training in speech, either public speaking or effective participation in group discussion, is sacrificed to training in writing in most schools which prepare the bulk of their students for college. The committee urges a correction of this imbalance." (46)

Comparatively few colleges and universities have a speech requirement. Where there is such a requirement, it is often discharged in a two-or-three hour course, as contrasted with the standard six-hour course in composition. *Both speaking and writing are important and should be included in the general education requirements, but if there must be a greater emphasis on one than on the other, I believe it should be shifted from the course in composition to the course in speech.*

But here I must point a finger of caution at teachers of speech. Obtaining for the curriculum the requirement of a course in effective speech is not an end in itself, and it must not be treated arbitrarily. The end is a certain agreed-upon competence, and if a high school graduate can demonstrate the required competence, he should be freed from the requirement if he chooses. Some sort of diagnostic measures should be established and used as a basis for excusing the student or sectioning him as to ability. We pay lip service to this in English composition, but how seldom do we act on the principle! Let us not do the same as we succeed in getting the speech requirement accepted into the curriculum. Above all, let us give special attention to challenging the more

able speech student if he is required to take a course.

The second caution concerns the old controversy over responsibility for instruction in communication, either written or spoken. English composition cannot be successfully taught if teachers of other subjects disclaim any responsibility for teaching effective writing and pay no attention to student performance in written work. The same is true of speech. Responsibility for speech must never be the exclusive concern of the speech department. Speech teachers, therefore, must establish rapport with all their colleagues, get them to recognize a responsibility for speech performance in their classes, and cooperate with them in achieving the goals of effective speaking.

Finally, I would emphasize the fact that the most important job in the field of speech education is that of basic instruction in effective speaking. I am aware that teaching the basic course that should be part of every student's education is seldom the most exciting, the most challenging, or the most rewarding in the speech field. As in all areas today, there is the tendency to specialize—so the teacher gets into speech pathology, forensics, mass communications, or the theater. All of these are important, but the big job in speech education seems to me to be successful and inspiring instruction in effective speaking, broadly interpreted along the lines I have suggested.

In conclusion, let me say this. Ours is indeed a world of science and technol-

ogy. It will become more and not less so. And because of recent Soviet achievements in these areas, we have come to put great emphasis upon education in science and engineering. But speech rather than science and engineering may actually hold the key to the future of the world. The United States is placing too much reliance on military hardware—the product of science and technology. It is doing too little in the areas where oral communication can be effective. I am not so naive as to expect all the world's ills to be solved around the conference table or in the auditoriums when international bodies and conferences meet. Post-war history is full of attempts at solving problems by negotiation that came to naught. But the record is also dotted with notable exceptions, where persuasion and deliberation in international affairs have resulted in steps, however, faltering, toward the great goal of a peaceful world. If such efforts are continued and strengthened, and backed up by more people-to-people contacts accompanied by real oral communication, the dream of such a world may some day be realized.

In any case, the average man and woman in every country has more and more the need to speak effectively, if he is to live successfully and, at least in democratic countries, discharge his obligations as a citizen. Science makes George Orwell's 1984 a possibility. Effective speaking may prevent it's becoming a reality. This is the great challenge to teachers of speech in a technological world.

AMERICAN STUDIES AND THE STUDY OF PUBLIC ADDRESS

Donald E. Williams

THE policy makers for undergraduate liberal education have apparently resolved that the liberal education of today must avoid confining specialization as well as directionless dilettantism. The typical statement of aims for modern liberal studies is embodied in the following: to seek to inspire respect, appreciation, and understanding for Man's efforts to express in various modes his responses to the world as he knows it, and to provide insight into how the natural and social aspects of that world are ordered, as well as insight into theories of how they can be better ordered.

As a result, various course groupings are appearing in our curricula; there are "general education" programs, programs of "common studies," core curricula, and interdepartmental programs which enable students to do course work in such broad fields as "Humanities," "Communications," and the various area studies, e.g., Far East Cultures, African Studies, German Studies, American Studies. Each of these programs reflects an attempt to insure balance between intensity and extensity in the total pattern of study.

The place that study in the field of Speech should have in any one of these individual programs is a question warranting investigation. My purpose, however, is to consider the relation of

courses in public address to the area study type of program; specifically, this question is asked: To what extent, if at all, can the study of the history of public address in the United States make a significant contribution to the American studies program?

The American studies idea is often not fully understood by faculty members both in and out of our field; before our principal question is further considered, therefore, the general character of this program should be outlined. What is the American studies program? What is its purpose, its nature, its status in our undergraduate colleges?

The purpose of American studies is synthetic in concept; the program seeks to enable the student to fashion out of "the complicated and often contradictory details of American civilization" a coherent picture of the United States. The diversity which appears in studying different subjects emphasizing various aspects or factors of American life is thereby reduced to some degree of unity.¹ The program's primary concern is that of making our civilization, in its totality, more intelligible to ourselves,² as well as to others who are interested.

The courses which comprise the typical American studies program are those "which occupy themselves with the

Mr. Williams was Instructor in Speech at Cornell University from 1955-59. He was recently appointed Assistant Professor of Speech at the University of Florida. He received the Ph.D. degree from Northwestern University (1958).

¹ Tremaine McDowell, *American Studies* (Minneapolis, 1948), 33.

² Robert E. Spiller, in reviewing McDowell's *American Studies*, *American Quarterly*, I (1949), 166-169.

reality of American experience";³ for the most part, they are offered in the traditional academic departments. American literature and history are usually the pillars of the program, primarily because the original enthusiasm for American studies came from scholars in these two fields who recognized their mutual interests. Courses in art, political science, sociology, and philosophy are often included and in some instances, subjects such as religion, geography, music, folklore, and economics appear. In many instances, courses in other civilizations, not necessarily Western, are also included in order to provide the student with basis for a critical comparison of civilizations and to allay somewhat the charge that the American studies concept is inherently chauvinistic. Finally, there is often a seminar for fourth-year students which climaxes the study of the United States through various approaches with study of a selected theme, period, or group by the eclectic method; in some colleges, there is also a course for beginning students in the program which explains and illustrates its underlying rationale.

Hence, the entire program features functional, not departmental, unity; its organizational pattern mirrors the complex design of American life, not the artificial sequence which specializing in a single academic department often provides.⁴

Those who teach courses dealing with the American story have demonstrated their interest in this interdisciplinary approach in various ways. They have organized the American Studies Association, they have formed regional groups which regularly sponsor meetings, they have received aid from various founda-

tions for ambitious research projects, and they publish a professional journal, the *American Quarterly*. Their writing and teaching activities, furthermore, have attracted attention abroad, where a sustained interest in the American configuration is being evinced.⁵

In addition, other professional organizations have officially expressed a keen interest in the American studies concept; the American Historical Association, the Modern Language Association, and the American Sociological Society have staged joint meetings with the American Studies Association at their respective national conventions.

An ASA committee recently surveyed American studies activity in our colleges and universities. This group found that undergraduate programs in American studies had existed for at least one year by January, 1958, in ninety-nine colleges. Because of the completeness of the survey, it was estimated that this figure represented close to ninety percent of the institutions with active programs in American studies as of 1957. Approximately seventy-five of the institutions surveyed grant the B.A. in American studies. Acknowledging the necessity for acquiring depth in some particular academic discipline, the other schools regard work in the American studies program as supplemental to concentration in one of the cooperating departments;⁶ in a few instances, the student receives at graduation, in addition to his diploma, a certificate testifying to his proficiency in the study of American civilization.⁷ Incomplete reports were also received from thirteen schools

⁵ Richard M. Huber, "A Theory of American Studies," *Social Education*, XVIII (1954), 267-271.

⁶ Robert H. Walker, *American Studies in the United States* (Baton Rouge, 1958), 159-160.

⁷ John William Ward, *The Special Program in American Civilization at Princeton* (Princeton, 1957), 7-11.

³ James F. Stone, "The American Studies: Some Observations," *American Studies*, I (1955), 1-3.

⁴ McDowell, 51.

which offered variations on the American studies idea, even though the course groupings were not as yet formally labeled "American Studies." Six additional colleges reported that American studies programs had recently been inaugurated or were in the final planning stage.⁸

The committee further pointed out that the growth of this interdepartmental concept has not been characterized by spurts and retrenching but by steady development of increasing magnitude throughout the last twenty-five years.⁹ It is worthy to note that the programs have grown most spectacularly since 1950.¹⁰

The chairman of this ASA committee concluded that because of the extent of serious work in this field and because there is enough in common in the minds of those who teach in the programs to define a central idea rather clearly, the American studies concept can now be accurately referred to as a definite movement in higher education. Experience with curricula in the area is ample enough to provide distinct purpose and direction for the movement, even though important problems must still be solved.¹¹

Having this knowledge of the purpose, nature, and status of American studies, let us look at the course entitled, "History and Criticism of Public Address in the United States." If we are to ascertain whether this study has a significant contribution to make to the realization of the purpose of American studies, we first need to know how members of our field are teaching the course. What is its purpose? How is it administered? Does it offer a type of study which makes it unique in nature?

⁸ Walker, 144-150.

⁹ *Ibid.*, 158-159.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, 189.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, 5.

Those in charge of American public address courses in forty-three colleges and universities were asked these questions. Thirty-six (.84) replied to the inquiry, nine indicating that they did not offer these courses on the undergraduate level.

Even though many of the remaining twenty-seven respondents pointed out that the study served various purposes (e.g., to develop skills in rhetorical criticism, to intensify the student's appreciation for artistry in speaking), they were unanimous in thinking that a principal purpose of the course work was to analyze how public address has helped shape our destiny as a people.

To be sure, teaching methods differ. Most instructors provide in class lectures the necessary details of the settings in which selected speaking occurred, augmenting this information with critical considerations of representative speakers, speeches, and speaking movements. These lectures are interspersed with discussion periods or special reports in which the students consider, from a background of assigned readings, particular topics related to our history of public address. Some instructors, on the other hand, select outstanding speakers of the past and consider with their students in seminar fashion the individual speaking careers of these men and women, attempting to determine in each instance what the social and intellectual backgrounds of these people were, how these backgrounds were reflected in their attempts to communicate thoughts to others, in what ways and how well they adapted to the prevailing social milieu, and what effects they had on the audiences to which they spoke. In all cases, the instructor functions as the rhetorical critic—reporting, probing, appraising.

By far the majority of this group be-

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believe that study in the history of public address in the United States makes a unique contribution to liberal education. This contribution springs from the very nature of the course work's primary materials. They consist of *speeches*; these speeches are studied as products of men and women who were operating in particular social spheres, attempting to persuade, to stir, or to inform their fellow men. If their efforts proved to be lasting works of art, this, in most instances, was a realization beyond their expectations. It was rather their intent, at those moments in time when the speeches were delivered, to influence particular audiences, within whom the various forces of history were at work. With these speeches as the focus, students come to know the thinking, the values, the rhetorical abilities of people who were attempting through use of the spoken word to meet the challenges involved in realizing their dearest aspirations.

As implied above, the study of the history of public address is not essentially concerned with the study of antiquity, *per se*; instead, it is an exploration of the past in order to appreciate fully the rhetorical powers and weaknesses exemplified by Man-among-men. It studies the speech form not as something to be mechanically dissected but as the vital social implement of those who choose oral discourse to reach the minds of listeners and who, through speaking, helped mold what our nation has been, what it is, and what it will become. And, as Lynn M. Case, Professor of History at the University of Pennsylvania, has said, Man has always grappled with the harassing problem of satisfactorily planning his present and his future predominantly by means of his voice.¹²

¹² Lynn M. Case, "Voices from the Past," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXVI (1950), 77-78.

How do people presently affiliated with American studies look upon the study of this important facet of our civilization? To ascertain this, questionnaires were sent to forty-two colleges and universities in which American studies programs have been established. Thirty-four (.81) of these schools replied.

To give the recipients of this questionnaire a clear idea of the typical features of a course in the history and criticism of public address in the United States, the following description was presented:

A survey of the role of speechmaking in major attempts to influence public opinion in the United States. A consideration of the backgrounds, intellectual perspectives, and oratorical achievements of selected political leaders, preachers, educators, lecturers, and agitators active in popular controversies, social movements, and intellectual currents in the nation's history.

Each American studies spokesman was then asked: (1) Do you think such a course has a significant contribution to make to the realization of the objectives of the American studies program on the undergraduate level? (2) If you think it has a contribution to make, do you think it is a contribution unique in nature?

In response to the first question, twenty (.59) of those who replied definitely agreed that the course would be in keeping with the goal of American studies and that this study would be a natural addition to the integrated discipline which the programs foster. The following was a typical response of the individuals in this group:

"Speeches are cultural vehicles which reflect movements in American culture. . . . [They] would give us an insight into the movements of thought as a whole."

Furthermore, all but four of those

who thought the course would make a significant contribution also saw this contribution as being unique. In indicating this conviction, some of these people remarked that while other courses, such as those in history and literature, consider speeches and speakers, they do not consider them in a thorough manner; at the worst, only passing and vague references to them are made, while at the best, speeches are viewed as preserved "documents" void of life and not in the complete speaker-audience-setting matrix. One person noted, "At present no course deals adequately with this problem"; another said the course described would be distinct from others "because it deals systematically with oral communication—something no other course does." The fact that oral communication attempts would be the special, singular focus in the course impressed other American studies spokesmen. One remarked:

"The spoken word has traditionally been the most elementary approach to influencing (short of using force) one's fellowmen. The ebb and flow of the use, abuse, and effectiveness of this medium can be used as an example of changing devices used in human relations."

Another person thought that because of the course's emphasis, "It could display very effectively the interrelation of social forces and individual thought."

In contrast with these opinions, however, eight (.23) of the respondents felt that the course would make no real contribution of its own. For the most part, these people thought that while speechmaking has done much to determine our nation's course, there was no reason for teachers of speech to direct the study of speeches. To quote one of this group, "Social scientists and philosophers can handle the analysis, historians describe the events and interpret the significance." Another person contended:

"The course overlaps some others in the program. For instance, sociology sometimes considers speechmaking as a means of influencing public opinion; and history and American literature treat of the backgrounds and 'intellectual perspectives' of the 'political leaders, preachers, educators, lecturers, and agitators.'"

Others in this group had other reasons for their position. One person thought the course would be too narrow in purpose to be meaningful: "I cannot really accept the idea that 'the role of speechmaking' is a large enough hook on which to hang a truly significant course." Other respondents, who regarded the history of public address as a "separable subject," feared that the inclusion of such a course in American studies might be inconsistent with the basic aim of the programs:

"It represents a tendency to return to a type of compartmentalized knowledge which American studies programs everywhere have been fighting. This is not an arbitrary judgment; I realize that such a course could possibly represent a fresh and useful cross-civilizational approach to knowledge, but I think the total effect of a change in this direction might be harmful. . . . [Yet] I would not be unalterably opposed to the inception of a course such as the one described."

The final segment of the American studies spokesmen, the remaining six (.18), did not give explicit answers or expressed no opinions in response to these first two questions.

These replies, considered as a group, indicate that the majority of American studies people think that the study of the history of public address in the United States would make a worthwhile contribution to the attempt to understand our civilization better through an interdisciplinary approach. Furthermore, almost all of these people regard this contribution as being a distinct one. A minority, approximately one-fourth, disagree with this point of view—some more strongly than others.

Surprisingly, perhaps, courses in public address are not included in American studies programs in a manner consistent with these responses. In twenty-four (.71) of the schools involved in this survey, no such course is offered; eleven of these schools, however, expressed interest in introducing such a course and making it a part of the programs, while the remaining thirteen registered no such interest. Eight (.23) of the schools reported that a course in United States public address is presently offered in their curricula, but in only three of these is it now a part of American studies course work; the other five respondents in this group indicated that study in public address is not a part of their programs, though two of these expressed favor in including it. The remaining two schools (.06) gave no information on this point.

It is evident, therefore, that the majority of the schools offering American studies do not offer the public address course; approximately half of these schools, moreover, see no justification for incorporating such a course into their programs. Our original question thus assumes added meaning: To what extent, if at all, can the study of the history of public address in the United States make a significant contribution to the American studies program?

The first possible answer to this question is that the study would make little or no contribution. If the course does not focus on the study of speeches, certainly it will not contribute; if evaluations based on competent rhetorical analysis of selected speeches are not central to the teaching of the course, it will not contribute. Any potential contribution depends on these factors. Again, if the course is taught by one unschooled in the precepts of the art of rhetoric, by one who is not alert to the function-

ing of these precepts in living speaker-audience situations so that he can evaluate speeches and speakers in their social settings, the negative answer is similarly appropriate; in this instance, the very qualifications for teaching the course would not be met. The systematic study of speeches as communication experiences is the province in which scholars of public address should expect to be considered experts; if they neglect rhetorical criticism, as this has been discussed here, and pose as historical specialists, they only substantiate the opinion that the study of public address has no distinctive contribution to offer interdisciplinary study of the American story. The case for this study must rest on whether its special focus materially assists in illuminating a causative force within our civilization.

This is not to say, however, that those who direct this study have no need for comprehending and utilizing the historical method in their research and teaching endeavors. To participate in the effort to make our civilization more intelligible demands that they have sharp insight into what the historical method involves and how it relates to the particular task of the rhetorical critic; they should not expect nor will they receive the respect of their teaching colleagues if their practices do not embrace this usage.

The bases for this first answer, therefore, are noteworthy, but amenable to correction.

There is indeed much support, conversely, for the position that competently directed study of public address in the United States would make a significant contribution to American studies. If, as Louis Filler of Antioch College says, "History is a humanity striving to be a

science,"¹³ and if we are to know Man's triumphs and defeats in this striving, then we should not omit the concentrated study of his *speaking*. The factors which set oral discourse apart from written discourse as a communication medium with its peculiar properties and its specific demands on its user surely make speech a discrete discipline in its own right; it should be studied as such when appraised as a social force and not be submerged among considerations of other elements which also help shape our nation's picture. The study of this facet of Man's activities is all the more defensible if one accepts the contention of Frederick Marcham, Goldwin Smith Professor of English History at Cornell University, that in history, speech is most rightly considered when it is regarded as "one of the two or three great creative forces in human affairs."¹⁴

If this observation holds true for any society, it would assuredly be applicable to ours. Alexis de Tocqueville sensed this phenomenon as he toured our land in the early part of the nineteenth century. He was stunned by the "tumult" which greeted him in all parts of the country; he heard a "thousand simultaneous voices" in deliberative bodies, in election campaigns, and in patriotic meetings, and he was deeply impressed, as he listened, by "the surprising liberty that the Americans enjoy," observing

that "this ceaseless agitation which democratic government has introduced into the political world influences all social intercourse."¹⁵ Such has it always been; the devotedly cherished and ardently practiced concepts of freedom of speech and responsible speech made our populace a vocal populace before they made it anything else.

This, then, is the role of public address in our civilization. The reasoning supporting the positive answer to our question is based on fundamental operational tenets of our republic, as these were sealed into its Constitution at its founding and as they have been exercised throughout its existence. If the study of American civilization, to use Arthur Bestor's happy analogy, needs the disciplined imagination of men who can see in a single blade of grass chemistry and biology and poetry,¹⁶ the teaching of American civilization needs the heightened understanding of men who can see the United States citizen continuously creating and reacting to the world he perceives—creating and reacting through *all* the media at his disposal, but through speech more than any of the others. To study this amalgam by studying separate, contributive fields of knowledge would be a partial, an incomplete process, if study of the powerful medium of speech in action were omitted.

¹³ Louis Filler, "The Interdisciplinary Factor in American Civilization," *School and Society*, LXXXIII (1956), 199-202.

¹⁴ Frederick Marcham, "History and Speech: Collaborative Studies, Present and Future," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXV (1949), 284-288.

¹⁵ Alexis de Tocqueville, *Democracy in America*, trans. Henry Reeve, ed. Phillips Bradley (New York, 1945), I, 249-251.

¹⁶ Arthur E. Bestor, Jr., "The Study of American Civilization: Jingoism or Scholarship," *William and Mary Quarterly*, 3rd Ser., IX (1952), 3-9.

THE RELATIONSHIP OF SPEECH AND READING IN AN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PROGRAM

Marian Monroe Cox

LISTENING, speaking, reading, and writing are the four basic channels of communication through language by which the work of the world gets done.

A person who lacks proficiency in any of these four language arts faces a serious problem in his ability to become educated, to support himself in a job or profession, and to develop an adequate personality for getting along in a competitive society.

Reading and writing have long been considered the basic core of the primary school curriculum. Children come to the first grade expecting to learn to read and write. They do not expect to learn to listen and speak because it has been assumed that six-year-old children can do both. Poor listening has been described as "poor attention" or "impoliteness." Poor speech has been considered either as something that a child "will outgrow" if he is not too seriously retarded, or as a defect that requires the clinical attention of a speech therapist or correctionist. Far too many first-grade teachers have never had a course in speech and, while prepared to teach reading and writing, are unprepared to teach listening or speaking.

It is the purpose of this paper to point out some of the relationships

among the four basic language arts, to relate listening, speaking, reading, and writing to each other by analyzing their similarities (i.e. the overlapping or common skills) and their differences (i.e. the skills that are specific to each of these four arts). Although there is a close relationship among the language arts, there is not a perfect one; we cannot assume that a child who is proficient in one language art will be similarly proficient in all. For example, we are all familiar with the poor reader who can talk fluently, or the good reader who has trouble in writing or spelling. And we all know the child who has a marked speech defect but who is an avid bookworm, or the good silent reader who cannot read aloud.

Listening, speaking, reading, and writing all involve language understandings: the meanings of words, of sentences, and of longer language patterns. Whether we listen or read, we must recognize the meaning of language symbols. Whether we speak or write, we must formulate our ideas in language patterns. Language meaning, therefore, is the underlying soil into which the roots of these four skills must dip in order for any of them to grow. The first essential in teaching a child to listen, speak, read, or write, therefore, is to teach him the meanings and patterns of language.

Listening is the process of getting ideas from a speaker, through hearing the vocal symbols.

Speaking is the process of giving ideas to a listener through vocal expression.

Reading is the process of getting ideas

The author is a specialist in language arts with particular emphasis upon research and clinical work in remedial reading. She directed the Reading Clinic at the University of Southern California (1945-50) and a similar clinic for the Pittsburgh Public Schools (1936-42). Her Ph.D. was done at the University of Chicago (1929). She is co-author (with Dr. William Gray and others) of the *New Basic Readers and Reading Tests* published by Scott Foresman & Co.

from an author or writer through viewing visual symbols.

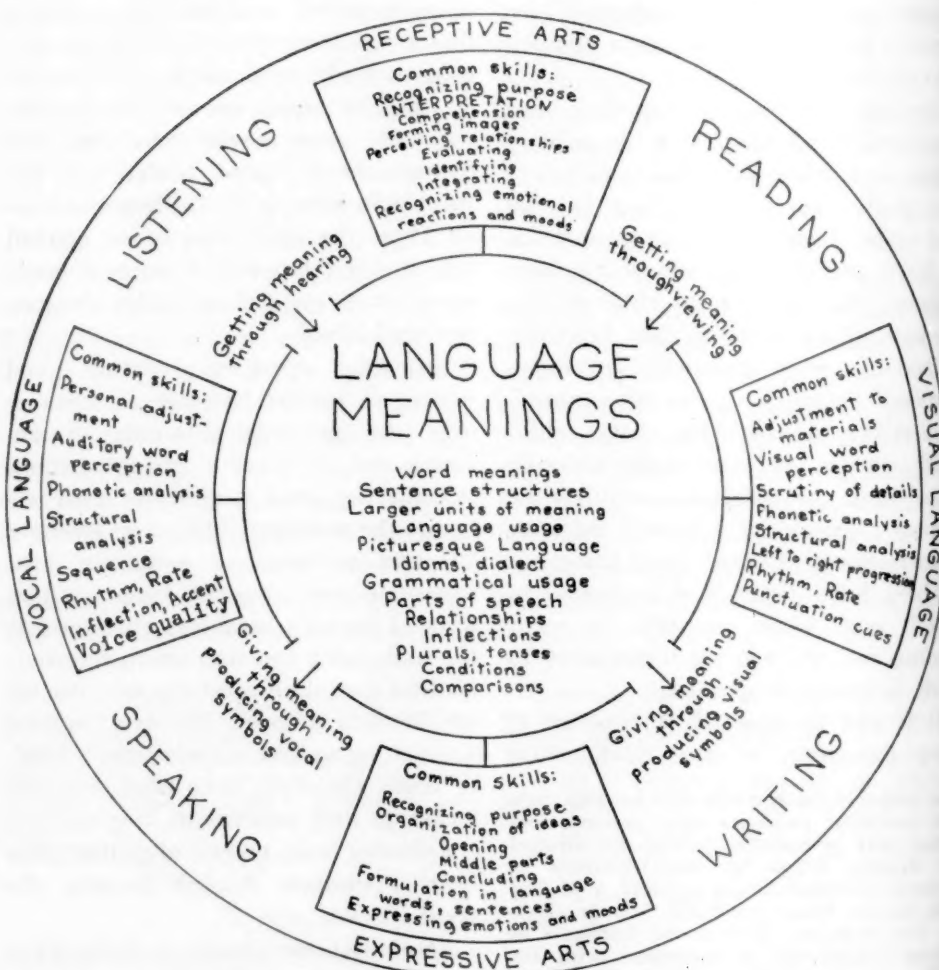
Writing is the process of giving ideas to a reader through preparing visual symbols either by handwriting, typewriting, or the medium of the printing press.

Listening and reading involve the same mental processes of comprehending and interpreting language symbols. They use different sensory modes—hearing and seeing. Speaking and writing

involve the same mental processes of formulating and organizing ideas for the expression of meaning. They use different motor channels—the motor coordinations of the vocal mechanisms in speaking, and motor coordinations of the eye, arm, and hand in writing.

These interrelationships among the language arts are shown on the chart below. Note that the chart may be thought of as divided either horizontally

INTERRELATIONSHIPS AMONG THE FOUR LANGUAGE ARTS



Marion Monroe, Speech in the Elementary School Interest Section,
Speech and Theater Convention, December 30, 1958

or vertically. The upper half of the circle deals with the language processes through which we receive or take in meanings, while the lower part includes the channels through which meanings may be expressed. When the chart is viewed as two vertical sections, the left-hand area includes the language processes that involve vocal language, and the right-hand section deals with language expressed visually.

Listening, speaking, reading, and writing form a sequence chronologically as the child initiates the learning of each art. Listening comes first in the infant and is almost immediately followed by attempts to produce the sounds heard. Meanings are attached to vocal sounds as the child reacts to his surroundings and associates objects, actions, and situations with the sounds heard or produced. By the time the child is about six years of age he has made great strides in learning to listen and speak, but his competence in these arts is far from mature.

The primary teacher finds a wide range of individual differences among children in their competence with respect to listening and speaking. Some six-year-old children have meager vocabularies and are immature in their understanding and use of language patterns. Others, because of better opportunities or abilities, can listen and speak at higher levels of achievement. Moreover, personality differences are also apparent, and the teacher is likely to find among her pupils the good listener who is too shy to speak, the chatterbox who seldom listens, and the withdrawn child who seldom listens or speaks. There is also the child who is handicapped by poor hearing or other physical deficiency that interferes with listening or speaking, the child whose speech is immature or whose articulation is defective, and

the child who lacks a background of English language patterns because he hears a foreign language spoken in the home.

At the other extreme, the teacher finds pupils who listen and understand at a high level of competence and who express their ideas in mature language patterns with good habits of speech. No six-year-old child, however, has reached his highest potential. Each in growing in his own way and all are at various stages of accomplishment on the way toward learning to listen and speak. There is continuous, sequential development in the arts of listening and speaking just as there is in reading and writing.

The first-grade teacher of reading is confronted with the problem of helping children associate printed text with the variety of language meanings, experiences, and competences which the children have already acquired. A pre-reading or "reading-readiness" period in which the language skills are consolidated for reading purposes has become a core procedure in almost all basic reading programs. The reading readiness period is in many respects a period of language training during which the teacher analyzes and diagnoses the language competence of her pupils as they view pictures in their pre-reading book and interpret the picture meanings in language. During the picture-reading period the teacher discovers whether or not the pupils can understand, through listening, and express, through speaking, language patterns that in respect to vocabulary, sentence-structure, and other aspects of language are on at least as high a level as the stores which the pupils will soon read in their books. Using a picture as a common experience for learning, the teacher tries to develop greater competence in the understanding and use of language patterns. She also

introduces the child to the new skills of book handling and viewing which he will need when he views printed words in his pre-primer and talks about their visual similarities and differences. ("Viewing" means focusing on some particular part of the visual field, just as listening means directing attention to some particular part of what is heard. Of course every normal six-year-old sees the many sights of his environment, but the skill of viewing, like the skill of listening, must be taught.)

What are some of the basic language skills that teachers of reading analyze and try to develop, as their pupils interpret picture-stories?

Using a one-picture story, i.e. a single picture on a page, the teacher analyzes and helps to develop vocabulary by the simple procedure of asking the children to name the objects in the picture. As children listen and speak they develop ability to pronounce the names of the pictured objects more accurately. The teacher discovers children who have meager vocabularies and immature articulation. Pupils classify and add nouns to their vocabularies as they learn the names of many pets and other animals they know. As pupils describe objects in the picture, they add adjectives to their vocabulary; for example, "The dog is *small* and *frisky*." They may also use comparatives, as in "The dog is *larger* than the cat." They compare their own pets with the pictured pets, and name other animals. In discussing the size of other animals, pupils learn the more colorful words, *enormous*, *gigantic*, *wee*, *tiny*, as well as *large* and *small*, *big* and *little*.

Pupils use verbs as they tell the action taking place in the picture; "The dog is *jumping*" or "The cat is *walking*." They listen and learn from classmates or teacher that they may use not only

the word *jumping*, but that the dog may be *leaping*, *bounding*, or *springing*. The cat is not only walking; the cat may be *stepping*, *tiptoeing*, *mincing*, or *strutting*. They add adverbs to describe the action—leaping *playfully*, stepping *daintily*.

As pupils use language to describe the setting of the story or to indicate space relationships they add prepositional phrases to their sentences—"The cat is tiptoeing carefully *across the grass*." They may add conjunctions and clauses to their sentences to explain the cause-effect relationships: "The dog is leaping high *because* he wants to get the ball *which the boy is tossing*."

Pupils develop an awareness of past tense as they imagine the action that took place preceding the picture: "One day a boy *went* outdoors and *called* his dog. He *wanted* him to play ball." They learn to use the future tense as they anticipate what will happen next: "The boy *will give* the dog a biscuit when they are through playing."

After the picture-story has been enjoyed and its meaning has been formulated in language, the pupils use a summary sentence to give the main idea of the picture, or they may suggest a title. They share similar personal experiences, which they have had with their own pets, organizing and formulating language for reporting. They evaluate and compare their experiences, listening and speaking in turn. The picture-story serves as a common basis for stimulating and sharing ideas.

Besides developing the language skills which are common to listening and speaking and necessary for comprehension in reading, the picture-story helps to develop certain viewing skills that will be used in reading. Listening requires auditory word-perception. Reading requires visual word-perception. This

is the point of divergence between listening and reading. A picture is more abstract than reality and is the first step toward reading. Three-dimensional space is portrayed in two dimensions. The child learns to infer the third dimension in a picture through perspective. He notices that diminishing size and less detail indicate distance. He notices that objects in the foreground are not transparent but cover portions of objects behind. He learns by the process of "closure" to understand that what looks like an apparent third arm sticking out from a boy's neck does not belong to the boy in the foreground but to the boy just behind him. He understands that the train engine on one side of the station really belongs to the same train as the caboose on the other side. He apprehends objects sketched with only a few strokes or in outline. Outline drawings or silhouettes are a far cry from the full-detailed, three-dimensional objects of reality. He learns that drawings which only slightly resemble reality may represent real objects; for example, a circle with strokes around it may mean the sun. Now he is on his way toward comprehending that a printed word, which is in no manner like an object, can stand for or represent an object. The printed word can also represent an action or even an abstract idea. Visual symbols acquire their meanings through comprehension of the language meanings of vocal symbols which they represent. The printed word has no meaning until it is associated with vocal language.

As pupils view pictures they develop a vocabulary with which to describe the visual characteristics of objects. They develop habits of careful scrutiny. They observe size, position, shape, and internal details and learn the vocabulary which

they will later apply in describing printed words.

After some practice in "reading" a single picture, the next step is to read a narrative picture-story in the reading readiness book. This type of picture-story presents several episodes of a story in sequence, like a series of pictures in a comic strip. These episodic pictures have great value for reading as they prepare pupils for the direction of reading, from left to right along a row of pictures and from top to bottom down the page. They also have distinct values in further developing language competence in both listening and speaking. Between the episodes, pupils must imagine or infer the action taking place. If in the first picture the dog is jumping for the ball and in the second picture the dog is running with it, the pupil must see in his mind's eye the interim action. The picture "comes alive" in the pupil's mind as a motion picture. He hears in his mind the barking and laughing. He feels in his own muscles the pictured action of running as he identifies himself with the boy in the picture. He "smells" the flowers and shrubbery of the garden. Just as he learns to fill in the spaces between pictures with mental imagery, he later will learn to "see between the printed lines" of his text and make the story he reads "come alive." He learns to "listen between the phrases" of stories that he hears, and visualizes as he listens. He becomes involved in the story as a person. He cares what happens and may weep if the story is a sad one, or laugh at the funny incidents. The vivid sensory imagery of his mind creates an experience for him that is real and vital.

Very few listeners even among adults know how to utilize fully the lag in time between thinking and listening. We can think so much faster than the speaker

can pronounce the words to which we are listening. Creating mental imagery while listening helps both children and adults give complete attention to a speaker—with a whole mind, not with just half a mind while the other half excursions out on daydreams of its own.

If a speaker, too, "sees" mentally the scene or action he is describing as he talks, he becomes a better speaker. The more vividly he visualizes as he speaks, the more vividly he can make his listeners see and feel with him, the more likely he is to use descriptive language—the similes, metaphors, and analogies that are the first steps in creating literature. When a young speaker who is reporting an incident is asked by his teacher, "Make us see it like it was, make us feel it and think we were there," he is likely to visualize his ideas and get them across to his listener in more colorful language.

It is too bad that the wealth of language values in the pre-reading or reading-readiness program of the early first grade is directed just toward establishing proficiency in learning to read. Many of its values lie in the development of basic understandings that apply as much to listening and speaking as to reading. There should be a place in the curriculum for a continuation of these language activities. Many first-grade teachers have said, "I hate to stop the pre-reading program when we finish the pre-reading book. My pupils need to continue these activities."

"Listening" is an art in and of itself. It is time we gave listening a place in the curriculum of the elementary grades, on a par with reading. There should be a separate period for the systematic development of this skill. Teachers should be as well trained to teach listening as they are to teach reading. Ability to listen well is needed at every age, and

we should devise better procedures for language development in a separate period from reading throughout the elementary program. We should identify the goals and procedures in teaching listening, and use tests for measuring achievement at the various age and grade levels just as we do now in reading.

Good listening habits will be reflected in better speaking habits, because children imitate the speech they hear. Pupils who learn to recognize the organization of a speaker's ideas will be better able to formulate their own ideas in oral expression. If, for example, a pupil recognizes that there are three parts in a story he has heard, he will be able to retell the story by using these three parts as a guide to remembering the story sequence. The episodic picture-story in the reading-readiness book, for example, helps him to visualize the episodes and he uses his visual memory of the pictures as a guide as he narrates. If he visualizes as he listens, his visual images will set up a chain reaction to help him remember what he has heard. Having heard correct language usage and pronunciation from his classmates and teacher in discussing the story he has heard, he grows in maturity. He leaves off such immature expressions as "The boy *catched* the ball," "The dog *bringed* the ball back to the boy," or "The boy *gived* the dog a biscuit."

As a story or poem is told or read aloud by the teacher during the story hour, the listener begins to incorporate the language patterns of good literature into his own speech. Listening to and retelling stories should continue, as it does now in many school programs, far beyond the primary grades. There is need, however, for teachers to recognize how to get the most out of a story or news period by analyzing carefully the

procedures for achieving specific purposes in listening and speech.

Organizing language for oral reports paves the way for better writing, because many ideas expressed orally are too valuable to be lost. The "experience chart" of the first grade in which the children retell a class experience while the teacher writes it down can well be extended in bookmaking or newspaper writing. In fact, a favorite and valuable method in remedial reading classes is to have a pupil dictate a story of his own which the remedial teacher types for him to put in his own book and read again. He is familiar with the content and language patterns because they are his own and he can read such a story fluently.

Just as the "experience chart" aids the first-grader in developing competence in formulating language for written production, so does the making of a book of his own help the older child learn to write. The experience chart helps beginners understand that there is a direct, word-for-word relationship between reading and speech. There is a printed symbol for each spoken word. Through the medium of the "experience chart," a pupil is aided in listening for the words which are the units of language. He may hear "We wenna town" as three spoken words, but when he sees the teacher write "We went to town" he realizes that there are four printed words. When he reads these four words aloud, however, he learns not to pause between the final *t* of *went* and the initial *t* of *to*, but groups the printed words into the proper cadence or oral speech. Thus reading, writing, listening, and speech develop hand in hand, each clarifying concepts through their interaction.

Although there is a perfect relationship between the number and sequence

of spoken and printed words, the relationship between the vocal sounds that comprise the spoken word and the letters that comprise the printed word, while close enough to aid the child in reading, is by no means perfect. One vocal sound may be represented by different letters in certain words, and a given letter may be translated back into various sounds owing to the context of letters within the word. (For example, the sound of the vowel *i* when alone between two consonants is quite different from the sound of *i* when a final *e* is present.) Even though the relationship of sounds and letters is not perfect, the more carefully a child has learned to listen to words, the more accurately he has learned to articulate and pronounce them and to hear which sounds come first or last or in the middle, the better he can understand and apply the general principles of phonetic analysis in word recognition. Much of the difficulty that pupils have in applying phonetic principles to word recognition is due not so much to the fact that there are exceptions to rules as to the fact that children have not learned to listen to and discriminate the *sounds* of language.

In terms of words and their meanings within the larger language patterns, pupils can apply in reading all their knowledge of language gained from listening and speaking. A good program of listening and speaking with its careful attention to all aspects of language—plurals, past tense, various noun and verb inflections, and root words—is reflected in the pupils' ability to recognize printed words by structural analysis. Pupils who are familiar with language patterns and are trained to concentrate attention on language meanings can anticipate meaning in reading and can utilize context clues to unknown words as they read.

We cannot completely isolate the language arts of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, as they complement and overlap one another. Somewhere in the middle grades pupils' reading vocabularies forge ahead of their listening and speaking vocabularies. At about the fourth-grade level the use of the dictionary aids pupils in developing more precise word meanings. The dictionary pronunciation symbols become the criteria by which correct oral speech is judged. Children now begin to use in their oral language new words encountered in reading.

At first the rate of reading is slower than that of hearing or spoken speech, but silent reading soon overtakes and surpasses oral rate. Reading may be preferred to listening as a means to rapid grasp of meaning. The eye can go much faster than the tongue. Speed of reading develops chiefly through the grouping of meaningful language patterns around key words as the eye darts from one key word to another. Although reading speed can outstrip vocal speed of language, it cannot outstrip thinking speed. The good reader constantly adjusts his rate to the purpose of reading and to his grasp of the meaning. Even the most rapid reader of mystery stories slows down when he picks up a book on philosophy.

By way of summary:

1. There are four basic language arts: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
2. Language is a factor in almost every part of the curriculum.
3. Each of the language arts has its own specific goals and developmental procedures.
4. The listening-speaking arts should be taught in a special period apart from

reading (stressing now the listening and now the speaking aspect of this dichotomy). The pupil's ability to listen and speak should outstrip ability to read during the early grades.

5. The listening-reading programs may be combined while stressing various interpretative skills.

6. The speaking-writing programs may at times be combined when the skills of formulating sentences or organizing ideas are being promoted. Language expression through speaking often creates ideas which should be recorded in or stimulate creative writing.

7. The listening-pronunciation and articulation aspects of language may be combined for certain purposes in the application of phonetic analysis in reading.

8. The word-recognition and writing programs (with spelling as an aspect of writing) may often be combined for specific purposes. Spelling is to writing as articulation is to speaking. Writing must be legible and spelled correctly. Speech must be correctly articulated and pronounced.

9. Some flexibility among the four programs is desirable, but achievement goals for each program need to be set up separately from the others, grade by grade.

10. Since each of the four skills may vary in some respects from the others, diagnostic and remedial procedures also should be worked out separately for each skill.

11. None of these skills—listening, speaking, reading, or writing—should be left to chance or incidental attention. Each deserves its own special place in the elementary curriculum.

AN ANALYSIS OF RECENT LITERATURE ON TEACHING ETHICS IN PUBLIC ADDRESS

J. Vernon Jensen

THE purpose of this paper is to survey and analyze the literature which has been written recently (within the last five years) on the relationship of ethics to the field of public address. Attention will be directed to the following questions: (1) What has been written recently about the relationship of ethics to speech education in general? (2) What has been written about the relationship of ethics to speech criticism? (3) What has been written about the relationship of ethics to persuasion specifically? (4) How has the relationship of ethics to persuasion been handled?

A considerable body of literature has been written within the last five years touching on the relationship of ethics to speech education in general. The basic question involved seems to be this: Should a teacher of speech teach the ethical considerations in speaking in addition to the techniques of speaking? The speech teachers, supplemented by a few social psychologists, political scientists, and anthropologists, whose views on the subject have found their way into books, into the journals of the Speech Association of America, into the regional speech association journals, or into other periodicals, have answered

the question in the affirmative virtually unanimously. Representative is the statement by Professor Waldo Braden: "We must be more than teachers of how-to-do-it. We must be teachers of attitudes and ethics."¹

The literature discusses predominantly only the general ethical aims of speech education rather than specific methods of achieving those aims. The authors maintain that the teacher of speech has ethical obligations toward five objects: (1) Truth, (2) the political society—the nation, (3) the field of the liberal arts, (4) the speech profession, and (5) the student of speech. Hence, the authors emphasize that as a scholar and as a human being the speech teacher ought to inculcate in his students habits of scholarly research, rigorous evaluation of material, clarity of organization, and effectiveness of presentation to the end that Truth might better be served. Serving the society is also emphasized. Bringing the greatest good to the greatest number and recognizing the precedence of the public good to personal gain are stressed, but most frequently emphasized is the need for perpetuating the general values of the democratic society, particularly the aspect of freedom of speech.² It is as-

Teachers of public address for many years have faced the basic question of what to teach students about attitudes and ethics in speaking. Mr. Jensen, Instructor in Communication at the University of Minnesota, has assembled and analyzed much material useful to the teacher who attempts to answer the basic question. He completed his Master of Arts degree at Minnesota in 1948, after receiving the B.A. degree at Augsburg College (Minneapolis) in 1947.

¹ "What Can Be Done by Teachers of Speech to Preserve Freedom of Speech: A Symposium," *The Southern Speech Journal*, XIX (May, 1954), 335.

² George P. Rice, Jr., strongly advocates that the basic course in public speaking ought to include a unit dealing with speech as a civil liberty ("Civil Liberty Challenges Rhetoric and Public Speaking," *The Educational Forum*, XVII (May, 1953), 473-481).

serted that since teachers of speech have a most intimate relationship with,³ and even a vested interest in, the freedom of speech, they ought to be in the front lines of its defense.⁴ Third, the teacher of speech should always remember that his subject material is a part of the liberal arts tradition whose central objective might be said to be to free man from being an amoral, insensitive animal. Thus, near-sighted specialization on amoral techniques which ignores the implications of this larger liberal arts picture ought to be avoided. Furthermore, the teacher of speech ought to fulfill his obligation toward his profession by promoting mature and responsible professional ethics. Finally, the teacher of speech has an ethical obligation toward his students. He ought to be cognizant of teaching *students*, not merely teaching *a subject*; he ought to give his time and advice freely; he ought to inculcate in his students a desire for genuineness in their speaking; he ought to help them to arrive at the desire for complete intellectual integrity; he ought to teach them to respect the inherent dignity of the recipients of their communication; he ought to build into their character a desire for sportsmanship in all competitive speech situations. In short, the speech teacher, the "good man," ought to be concerned with building other "good men" and not merely with training students to become proficient in the techniques of speaking.

³ As John Keltner has recently phrased it, the teachers of speech are "the guardians and the gardeners of free, responsible speech" ("The Hardest Knife," *The Speech Teacher*, VI (November, 1957), 284).

⁴ It will perhaps be remembered that the Speech Association of America marshalled the moral force of its organization to the defense of freedom of speech by passing a strong resolution at its annual meeting in 1952. For a copy of the resolution, see *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXIX (February, 1953), 94.

The relationship of ethics to speech criticism has also received considerable attention. That moral courage ought to be a very important part of a speech critic's equipment, as demonstrated, for example, by a willingness to criticize current speeches involving highly controversial people or subjects, is occasionally referred to by some and is strongly advocated by Ernest J. Wrage in his interesting article, "The Ideal Critic."⁵ But perhaps the central question here is: Should a speech critic evaluate the effects of the speech as well as the techniques of the speaker in composition and delivery? James H. McBurney and Wrage in 1953⁶ and Wayland M. Parrish in 1954⁷ emphasized that the critic should be concerned with only the quality of a speech, which can be ascertained without studying its effects—that one should be guided by the principles of the art of speech and not the results of the speech. The most intensive advocacy of the opposite point of view has been the original and provocative contributions of Thomas R. Nilsen in articles in 1956 and 1957.⁸ He develops fully the thesis that a critic ought to evaluate the effects of a speech as well as the techniques involved. Since speech by its very nature is a social act, involving the possibility of a change in thought or action of other humans, it has social repercussions, and these effects on society, he argues, ought to be taken into consideration by the critic. Nilsen suggests that the standard which ought to be used is the amount of contribution made to the progress of the values

⁵ *Central States Speech Journal*, VIII (Spring, 1957), 20-23.

⁶ *The Art of Good Speech* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc.), 22-32.

⁷ *American Speeches* (New York: Longmans, Green and Co.), 7.

⁸ "Criticism and Social Consequences," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XLII (April, 1956), 173-178; "Interpretive Function of the Critic," *Western Speech*, XXI (Spring, 1957), 70-76.

or purposes of the society upon which the speech has its impact. Harold F. Harding⁹ and Barnet Baskerville¹⁰ also have briefly emphasized that a critic should evaluate the effects of a speech. Though opinions thus vary, the view expressed most frequently and intensively in recent literature is that a speech critic should evaluate social effects as well as the techniques of the speaker.

The main focus of this paper, however, is concerned with what has been written within the last five years about the relationship of ethics to persuasion specifically. In 1952 Brembeck and Howell stated that "the ethical aspect of persuasion and propaganda has not been stressed by writers in these fields."¹¹ For example, one of the few texts which had devoted space to this relationship, gave it only three pages.¹² The evidence seems to reveal that since 1952 the ethical aspect has been increasingly stressed.

A number of books on persuasion written within the last five years have included fairly extensive discussions on the relationship of ethics to persuasion.¹³

⁹ "The College Student as a Critic," *Vital Speeches*, XVIII (September, 1952), 734-735.

¹⁰ "Emerson as a Critic of Oratory," *The Southern Speech Journal*, XVIII (March, 1953), 161-162.

¹¹ *Persuasion: A Means of Social Control* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc.), 446.

¹² H. L. Ewbank and J. J. Auer, *Discussion and Debate* (New York: F. S. Crofts Co., 1946), 277-279. Bibliographies on the subject scarcely mention periodical literature; one has to go back to William Schrier's article, "The Ethics of Persuasion," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XVI (November, 1930), 476-486, to find any extensive treatment of the subject.

¹³ Recent texts in other areas of speech—discussion and general communication—have also included chapters on ethics: W. S. Howell and D. K. Smith, *Discussion* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1956), Chapter XVIII, "Ethics of Discussion;" H. Hackett, M. Andersen, S. Fessenden, and L. Hagen, *Understanding and Being Understood* (New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1957), Chapter XII, "Good Communication is Socially Responsible."

In 1952 Brembeck and Howell in their book, *Persuasion: A Means of Social Control*, pioneered by including an unusually intensive analysis of ethics in persuasion,¹⁴ a fact which one reviewer at the time singled out and applauded.¹⁵ Two new texts in persuasion published in 1957 have also each included a chapter on ethics. Wayne C. Minnick has done so in his book, *The Art of Persuasion*,¹⁶ and Robert T. Oliver, who did not see fit to include an organized discussion of ethics in his earlier books, *The Psychology of Persuasive Speech* (1942) and *Persuasive Speaking: Principles and Methods* (1950), did include a chapter on ethics in his 1957 revised edition, *The Psychology of Persuasive Speech*.¹⁷ Vance Packard in his book, *The Hidden Persuaders* (1957), also includes a chapter on the moral questions involved in commercial persuasion.¹⁸ Richard Weaver wrote some speculative essays on the philosophy of rhetoric which were published in 1953 under the title of *Ethics of Rhetoric*.

A number of periodical articles have also dealt at length with the problem. Some of the more important ones are those by Franklyn S. Haiman, "A Re-Examination of the Ethics of Persuasion," in the March 1952 issue of *The Central States Speech Journal*; two articles by Karl Wallace which appeared early in 1955—"An Ethical Basis of Communication," in *The Speech Teacher*, and "Rhetoric and Politics," in *The Southern Speech Journal*; an article by Otis Walter, "Rhetoric as a Liberal Art," in the summer 1955 is-

¹⁴ Chapter XXIV, "The Ethics of Persuasion."

¹⁵ Waldo Braden, *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XXXIX (February, 1953), 99.

¹⁶ Chapter XII, "The Ethics of Persuasion."

¹⁷ Chapter II, "The Ethics of Persuasion."

Oliver did, however, include a chapter on ethics in an earlier general speech text, *Training for Effective Speech* (New York: Cordon Co., 1939).

¹⁸ Chapter XXIII, "The Question of Morality."

sue of *The Southern Speech Journal*; and an interesting article by William L. Miller on "The Debating Career of Richard M. Nixon," in the April 19, 1956 issue of *The Reporter*, which bitterly accuses the Vice-President of utilizing in his rise to power many techniques of the polished but unprincipled debater. It is also interesting to note that the late Irving J. Lee had planned to write an article for *The Quarterly Journal of Speech* on the topic of ethics of persuasion, but death in 1955 cut him short.¹⁹ Thus, both in articles and in books numerous individuals have demonstrated during the last five years a concern for the relationship of ethics to persuasion.

How have these men approached the problems involved in the relationship of ethics to persuasion? With what questions have they grappled and what answers have they suggested? It would seem that four basic questions have dominated the thoughts of the authors: (1) What is the source of ethical standards? (2) How can the gap between prescriptive standards and observable practice be bridged? (3) What are some worthy ends toward which persuasion might be directed? (4) What are some acceptable means to employ?

To the first question three answers are given. First, virtually all of the authors reveal a reliance upon the Judeo-Christian tradition as a source of ethical standards. This is done only implicitly, however; in fact, there seems to be a studied attempt to avoid reference to that religious origin. But as most of the authors emphatically deplore the use of such devices as deceit, distortion, falsification, misrepresentation, and obtaining personal gains at the expense of

the group, it would seem that they are drawing upon the Judeo-Christian heritage in which our civilization is rooted.

Second, a few of the authors have explicitly developed the contention that the source of ethical standards ought to be the values of a given political state—the ideals of one's nation. For instance, Karl Wallace in his article, "An Ethical Basis of Communication," listed what he felt were the four fundamental values of our democracy here in the United States: (1) respect for the dignity and worth of an individual; (2) the rights of freedom of action, restrained only by law; (3) faith in the equality of opportunity; and (4) faith that every person is capable of understanding the nature of democracy (its goals, values, and procedures) and hence the freedom of press, speech, and assembly. The object, then, after the values of the society have been identified, is to judge the degree to which a given persuasive presentation lives up to these ideals. Wallace repeats this approach in his article, "Rhetoric and Politics," and Haiman and Nilsen in their articles also develop the same emphasis that our democratic values ought to be the source of our ethical standards in a persuasive speech.

This approach seems to assume that a code of national ethics is relatively easy to clarify and that our democratic values represent an ideal society. These assumptions might well bear some scrutiny. Richard McKeon and Harold Lasswell, to cite two individuals, have stressed recently in articles in *Ethics* the difficulty of codifying the values of a given society or knowing unquestionably what the form of the perfect society is.²⁰

¹⁹ Wilbur S. Howell, "The Forum," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, XLI (October, 1955), 284.

²⁰ "Communication, Truth, and Society," and "The Normative Impact of the Behavioral Sciences," LXVII (January and April, 1957), 89-99, 1-42.

This emphasis on a national ethic might be considered either "absolutist" or "relativistic" ethics. It could be considered the latter (and Robert T. Oliver, for one, so treats it)²¹ in that it escapes the universal absolutist emphasis of the Judeo-Christian religion. But it might be more accurate to label it an "absolute" approach to ethics, for it applies in a given country the defined national values in a prescriptive manner to the message of a persuader just as the Judeo-Christian code is applied on a universal basis. Reducing the geography involved and substituting a political for a religious base hardly changes the inherent characteristics.

The third answer is that the source of ethical standards is to be found in the immediate social context. This scientific, descriptive approach, that "ethics of persuasion is a function of context,"²² is strongly advocated by Brembeck and Howell. They suggest that universal, exact, and unchanging moral laws, while possibly desirable, simply do not operate in real life because of numerous qualifications and reservations; for instance, "thou shalt not kill" is seriously modified by permitting and even advocating the taking of human life in certain situations under certain conditions. Hence, universal prescriptive rules are unrealistic sources for ethical standards, and Brembeck and Howell suggest that a better source is the immediate social context. They urge that one observe the actual moral behavior of one's contemporaries, that advice given on the degree of rightness or wrongness of a given persuasive act should take into account the concrete circumstances surrounding the immediate situation, and that one's guide should be in part

the degree to which the society affected will be hurt or benefitted both now and in the future.

The second basic question with which the numerous authors are grappling is the problem of the gap between principle and practice. Not only is there a wide chasm between what man ought to do and what he does, but also between what he says he believes and what he does. This situation in which an individual behaves in a manner opposed to his own valuations is labeled in a recent article by the Danish philosopher Carl Jorgensen as the problem of "ethical inconsequence," and, after constructing a number of illustrative examples, Jorgensen asserts that this kind of disharmonic relationship between valuations and behavior is ethically rejectable.²³ He does, however, inject two modifying considerations, for he acknowledges that in certain situations some valuation dominates all others and therefore it is quite legitimate that the other valuations cannot at that moment influence behavior; and, secondly, he feels that no one is obligated beyond his ability. Harold Lasswell has also recently discussed this same problem,²⁴ and has suggested that the causes for man to deviate from his stated norms are: calculated risk, cultural diversity, unconscious impulse, immaturity, ignorance, and organic defect.²⁵ H. L. Hollingsworth, the psychologist, shows

²³ "On the Possibility of Deducing What Ought to Be from What Is," *Ethics*, LXVI (July, 1956), 271-278. In this article Jorgensen refutes Hume's doctrine that it is impossible to deduce what *ought* to be from what *is*; that is, deduce prescriptive conclusions from nonprescriptive postulates. Jorgensen is refuted by David L. Miller, "The Ought and the Is," and by Jerome Rothenberg, "The Consequences of 'Ethical Inconsequence,'" *Ethics*, LXVII (April, 1957), 206-207, 208-215.

²⁴ "The Normative Impact of the Behavioral Science," *Ethics*, LXVII (April, 1957), Part II, 1-42.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, 12-17.

²¹ *The Psychology of Persuasive Speech* (New York: Longmans, Green, and Co., 1957), 24.

²² *Op. cit.*, 446, 455, 465.

the magnitude and complexity of man's problem when he demonstrates that one has to contend with at least ten categories of oughtness.²⁶

This wide gap between principle and practice is lamented by many in the field of persuasion but few attempt to solve it. Brembeck and Howell are among the few. They discuss a number of traditional prescriptive absolutes in connection with the ethics of persuasion, expose the wide gap between the rule and its actual operation, and thus emphasize that absolutistic universals are in general fault and unrealistic guides. Their answer is to urge the use of a descriptive, relativistic, flexible ethic guided by "social utility," which will be developed and applied as each problem arises in a given social situation. If this were done, the gap between principle and practice need not exist, at least not to the degree that it presently does. Another suggestion for closing the gap is the brief reminder by Minnick that a persuasive method might be defended in a certain situation but not necessarily justified.²⁷

In addition to the problems of the origin of ethical standards and the gap between principle and practice, the authors deal with a third basic question: What are some worthy ends toward which persuasion can be directed? Brembeck and Howell develop the important concept of "social utility," which they define as "usefulness to the people affected,"²⁸ and by "useful" they mean that which fosters the survival of the group both immediately and in the long run. They suggest that the probable

amount of social utility may be determined by engaging in a conscientious attempt to understand "the group members and their common interests, ways our persuasion may help or hurt the group, and favorable and adverse effects upon individuals."²⁹ This rests to some degree upon the principle of utilitarianism crystallized by Bentham, that is, the greatest good for the greatest number ought to be one's guide.³⁰ Oliver also speaks highly of this concept, which he labels "the principle of social effects," which holds that what is good in the long run for society as a whole, is ethical.³¹ Very similar goals are listed by Minnick when he mentions not only the Brembeck and Howell approach but also the emphasis of Hadley Cantril, the psychologist, that whatever furthers the purposes of the people affected is good, and the emphasis of Leonard Doob, the social psychologist, which states that those ends are right which are scientific and of value to a given society at a given time.³² Minnick also discusses Albert Schweitzer's concept of the reverence for life, which emphasizes that that which maintains and aids life is good.³³ Many writers extol as worthy ends the familiar values of our democracy. Packard strongly asserts that the goal of increased production which guides the commercial persuader is *not* a worthy end, for it tends to enslave the public to the productive process.³⁴ The worthy ends mentioned are indeed commendable, but one is nevertheless left with the disturbing questions, which Minnick

²⁶ *Psychology and Ethics: A Study of the Sense of Obligation* (New York: Ronald Press Co., 1949), Chapter I, "The Meanings of Ought." He lists: inference, completeness, beauty, social welfare, utility, duty, safety, custom, justice, and legislation.

²⁷ *Op. cit.*, 280.

²⁸ *Op. cit.*, 455.

²⁹ *Ibid.*

³⁰ For an interesting discussion of "Bentham's Philosophy of Rhetoric," see the article with that title by Wayne E. Brockriede in *Speech Monographs*, XXIII (November, 1956), 235-246.

³¹ *Op. cit.*, 24-25.

³² *Op. cit.*, 278.

³³ *Ibid.*

³⁴ *The Hidden Persuaders* (New York: David McKay Co., 1957), Chapter XXIII.

wisely poses,³⁵ as to what happens when men do not agree on the extent to which an act displays reverence for life, or possesses social utility, or furthers the purposes of the society, or enhances the dignity of the individual?

A fourth basic question with which the authors are concerned is: What are some worthy means of persuasion? Most of the writers approach the problem by discussing means which are amoral or neutral, means which are inherently unethical, and those means which tend to be highly ethical.

Virtually all of the authors emphasize the point that most means are generally to be considered amoral and that their ethical quality depends upon how they are used. Minnick, for instance, demonstrates this by showing how some of the familiar seven propaganda devices which the Institute of Propaganda Analysis had suggested were of dubious ethical content, could actually be used for such ends so as to make them quite ethical indeed. Minnick goes on to list six means which he would consider to be ethically neutral: suggestion, rousing the emotions, name-calling, use of personal prestige, appeals to testimony, to tradition, and to majority opinion, and, finally, appeals to needs, wants, and motives.³⁶ Brembeck and Howell, and, to a lesser degree, Oliver, also emphasize in their chapters that many of the means frequently labeled as unethical might in certain circumstances be quite proper to use.

Many of the authors emphasize that some means of persuasion are intrinsically unethical and ought to be avoided. Haiman devotes most of his article to make his point that suggestion, deliberate omission or minimization of materials contrary to the speaker's case,

and the deliberate use of non-rational motive appeals designed to short-circuit the thinking process of the listeners are inherently unethical because they violate our democratic ethic which demands freedom of choice. Such means, Haiman maintains, result in psychic coercion and are really the same as physical coercion in that freedom of choice is impeded. Packard devotes his chapter to the same emphasis, charging (obliquely through rhetorical questions) that the utilization of non-rational means to appeal to our sub-conscious drives is basically an invasion of our privacy and an unfair exploitation of our human weaknesses. Minnick lists four means on which he claims there is general agreement as to their inherently unethical nature: to falsify, to distort, to use consciously specious reasoning, and to deceive an audience about one's real intent.³⁷ Oliver also lists some means which he feels are unethical. Those not already mentioned are: speaking with assurance on a subject on which one is actually uninformed; using *argumentum ad hominem*; and advocating something in which one does not believe.³⁸ Brembeck and Howell, being devoted to relativistic ethics, do not give any simple list of means to avoid, but they do discuss four practices which they brand as somewhat or completely unethical: (1) to utilize "a rigid and unrealistic interpretation of a nonexperimental belief for purposes of persuasion;" (2) to assume "that people are logical in their nonexperimental belief patterns;" (3) to pretend to base one's persuasive claims on reason when actually "information is inadequate and rigid reasoning forms cannot be applied;" (4) to claim that "fundamental tenets of our culture [are] threatened with imminent over-

³⁵ *Op. cit.*, 279.

³⁶ *Ibid.*, 280-281, 284-285.

³⁷ *Ibid.*, 283-284.

³⁸ *Op. cit.*, 29-31.

throw through inadequate forces and in opposition to the known facts of social change."³⁹

If many methods are amoral and if others are intrinsically unethical, what means, if any, are intrinsically good and worthy of recommendation to the persuader? Virtually all authors agree that persuasion which rests upon the rigorous demands of rational procedure—systematic investigation and reflective thought—comes as close to being considered intrinsically ethical as any category of means can.

Some authors, however, wisely modify this emphasis by suggesting that there may very well be times when complete dependence upon rational means might be quite unethical. Minnick points out that the attention of the audience might not be maintained and they might turn to a more interesting but less rational demagogue, and since driving the audience away reduces their opportunity to hear all alternatives to the question at hand and thus reduces their freedom of choice, one would be engaging in unethical behavior.⁴⁰ Brembeck and Howell also emphasize that the "cult of reason" is on somewhat shaky grounds, for it is unrealistic in assuming that the listener is more rational than he really is, and by avoiding non-logical means the persuader might well reduce his effectiveness which would not fulfill his moral obligation to be effective in a given crisis.⁴¹ William Muehl maintains that reason and evidence are only supplementary attributes of the speaker's ethos and are not central requirements for effective persuasion.⁴² Though he does not concern himself with the ethical considerations, Muehl seems to imply

that one *ought* to be effective, and complete reliance on rational means would not fulfill this moral obligation.

Most of the authors try to give positive and helpful suggestions as to what practices a conscientious persuader might use. Brembeck and Howell have two main suggestions: keep one's experimental and nonexperimental categories straight, and fulfill as much as possible the considerations of social utility. They also urge one to keep explanation separated from description, and to employ tact conscientiously, since no one has the right to injure others unnecessarily. Oliver advises one to achieve ethically sound persuasion by speaking from honest convictions, thoroughly understanding the subject, supporting one's position with adequate facts, and expressing oneself with conscientious restraint. Haiman of course advocates the reliance upon rational means, and Minnick concludes his chapter with an admonition to rely upon the discipline of the scientific procedure of careful investigation and judicious thinking.

On the basis of this survey, then, one may arrive at a number of conclusions. (1) A considerable amount of literature has been written within the last five years touching on the relationship of ethics to speech education in general. (2) The authors are virtually unanimous in the opinion that the speech teacher ought to educate the "whole man" and not teach only skills. (3) Most writers feel that a speech critic ought to possess considerable moral courage and ought to evaluate the effects of a speech as well as the techniques of the speaker. (4) A considerable body of literature has been written within the last five years on the relationship of ethics to persuasion, much more than in any comparable prior period. (5) There is a decided emphasis on na-

³⁹ *Op. cit.*, 456-460.

⁴⁰ *Op. cit.*, 283.

⁴¹ *Op. cit.*, 449-450, 462-463.

⁴² *The Road to Persuasion* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1956), 110-121.

tional values as the source of ethical standards. (6) Some are beginning to suggest a system of relative ethics based upon scientific observation of behavior and rooted in the social context as a more realistic, operational, and helpful guide than traditional absolutist principles. (7) This emphasis on relativistic ethics is also suggested by some as a way of closing the age-old gap between principle and practice. (8) The ends which are most frequently advocated as good ends are social utility, democratic values, and Truth. (9) The majority of authors emphasize that most means are amoral and that their ethical quality depends upon how they are used. (10) Most writers emphasize that some means are intrinsically unethical. (11) There is a strong emphasis on the higher ethical nature of rational means of persuasion, although some do point out that rational means, too, at times could be considered unethical. (12) Most authors try to give positive and helpful suggestions as to what practices a conscientious persuader might use.

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GRAMMAR AND PRONUNCIATION IN THE SPEECH CLASSROOM

Paul D. Brandes

THE teacher of oral communication is often asked the question, "What do you do when your students make grammatical errors?" Or, "Do you teach 'pronunciation' as well as 'enunciation'?"

Such questions as these, aimed at establishing the attitude of the teacher of speech toward the mechanics of English, are certainly in order. The following comments are offered as principles for classroom guidance on both the high school and the college level.

WHAT STANDARDS IN GRAMMAR SHOULD BE MAINTAINED?

As early as 1922, Otto Jespersen assumed this attitude:

That language ranks highest which goes farthest in the art of accomplishing much with little means, or, in other words, which is able to express the greatest amount of meaning with the simplest mechanism.¹

Jespersen went on to say, that contrary to the position of other sciences which try to eliminate the personal element,

No teacher of speech escapes the problem of dealing with the mechanics of English in the classroom. The author, formerly Executive Secretary of the Southern Speech Association, and recently Head, Language Arts Division, Mississippi State College, writes very specifically regarding this teaching problem. At present he is Associate Professor of Speech at Ohio University. His M.A. (1947) and Ph.D. (1953) degrees were completed at the University of Wisconsin.

¹ Otto Jespersen, *Language, Its Nature, Development and Origin* (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1922), p. 324.

linguistics must be "anthropocentric" and judge all from its reaction on human beings.²

Thus, the functional rules of linguistics depend upon an examination of what society will accept. That this does not lead inevitably to a blanket acceptance of any sort of usage which is "communicative" is made clear by Jespersen when he stated:

... in all those instances in which we are able to examine the history of any language for a sufficient length of time, we find that languages have a progressive tendency. But if languages progress towards greater perfection, it is not in a bee-line, nor are all the changes we witness to be considered steps in the right direction. The only thing I maintain is that the sum total of these changes . . . shows a surplus of progressive over retrogressive or indifferent changes. . . .³

Robert A. Hall in his 1950 *Leave Your Language Alone!* concurs with Jespersen's position on effective language:

Is there any definition at all that we can give for "good" language? Only, I think, something like this: "good" language is language which gets the desired effect with the least friction and difficulty for its user.⁴

Hall makes his position even clearer when, after saying, "There is no such thing as good and bad (or correct and incorrect, grammatical ungrammatical,

² *Loc. cit.*

³ *Ibid.*, p. 326.

⁴ Robert A. Hall, Jr., *Leave Your Language Alone!* (New York: Linguistica, 1950), pp. 25-26.

right and wrong) in language,"⁵ he states that language usage is governed by social acceptability. That such a guiding principle again does not necessarily lead to unlicensed acceptance of any "communicative" form is made clear when Hall adds, "If my child is likely to run into trouble later on for saying *I done it* or *hisn*, I will try to keep him from getting into the habit of using those forms which are actually not acceptable socially and which may cause others to react unfavorably toward him."⁶

An interesting evaluation of Hall's (and thus Jespersen's) position is found in Ernst Pulgram's article, "Don't Leave Your Language Alone."⁷ After upholding in some manner Quintilian's attitude toward grammar and denying Bertrand Russell's approval of the strength of dialect, Pulgram attempts a frontal attack on Hall's position, an attack which appears to fall short of its mark since Hall and Pulgram have little basis for genuine disagreement. The similarity of their positions is illustrated below:

First, Pulgram is puzzled by Hall's employing in *Leave Your Language Alone!* a rather formal style, with only occasional concessions to liberalized grammar. Yet this is in keeping with Hall's philosophy previously stated of getting the "desired effect with the least friction and difficulty for its user." For Hall expected his readers to demand rather rigid adherence to the formal rules of grammar.

Second, Pulgram is disappointed that, in the long run, Hall's philosophy is not more revolutionary—which in a way is saying that he and Hall do not disagree radically.

But without involving ourselves fur-

ther in the professed disagreement between Hall and Pulgram,⁸ it appears that Pulgram does raise, for the person who accepts the attitude of progressive language change, the inevitable question, "Who is to tell the ditch-digger's son just what degree of deviation from what rules may 'cause others to react unfavorably toward him?'"⁹

And here we have our classroom situation. As Pulgram points out, the ditch-digger's father cannot answer the question and so the boy is sent to school. If we accept the philosophy that social acceptability leads us to the proper criteria for establishing usage, we must find a workable means of determining what is socially acceptable and then for getting the student to employ the agreed-upon usage.

At first these problems seem insurmountable. But fortunately, in actual practice, the teacher who keeps himself informed does not find the task beyond the scope of his teaching. It is suggested that the following plan be activated:

1. Each student should be aware of the extent to which his oral usage meets the requirements of any good set of contemporary grammatical rules.¹⁰

2. What is "socially acceptable" in the classroom should govern oral usage in speech assignments. This may be construed as a rather rigid adherence to the formal rules of grammar.¹¹

⁸ It may be noted that Pulgram's initial doctor of philosophy degree was from Vienna, making him subject to the tendency of European grammarians to adhere rigidly to the "rules of grammar."

⁹ Pulgram, *op. cit.*, pp. 427-428.

¹⁰ For example, Pulgram appears to find acceptable Newman B. Birk and Genevieve B. Birk's *Understanding and Using English* (New York: Odyssey Press, Inc., 1951).

¹¹ As Hall points out, such important factors as job opportunities and marriage may be materially affected by grammar. Therefore, "Everyone should subscribe to his local community chest" would be preferred; "This kind of book" would be maintained; and "between you and me" would be recommended. Hall, *op. cit.*, p. 237, says, "The use of *whom* is gradually dying

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 6.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

⁷ Ernst Pulgram, "Don't Leave Your Language Alone," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 38 (December, 1952), pp. 423-430.

3. A tolerance for language change, plus a philosophy which discourages a student from "looking down" on another because of his grammar faults, must be encouraged.¹²

4. The possibility that one may use precisely "correct" grammar in any situation without being socially unacceptable should certainly be raised. Hall's friend who worked in a Houston shipyard during World War II and was regarded as a snob for saying "those things" rather than the prevalent "them things"¹³ may well have experienced some form of ostracization because of the manner in which he employed his grammar, rather than the status of its "correctness." If one's grammar fits like a glove, if it "belongs" and is a part of one's personality, it is likely to be accepted quickly. However, if it is an instrument which is being ostensibly used, as a woman would employ diamonds to exhibit her wealth, it may well cause trouble. Franklin D. Roosevelt managed to win the vast majority of the labor vote with an accent which was certainly far from that of his union constituents.

In an effort to effectuate in the classroom the suggestions above, the instructor may find these techniques of use:

- a. In order to make the student aware of his grammar status, he may be asked to do any or all of the following:

out in English, and would probably be completely lost by now (and no harm done) if it had not been for the over-zealous exertions of purists . . ."

¹² The attitude with which students are often confronted is expressed by Pearl Marie Heffron in "Slang—Slag or Steel?" (*The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 26, April, 1940, p. 362): "What we allow in everyday conversation may, in our unguarded moments, appear where we do not want it. Our mind will not furnish us on demand a clear, accurate, dignified word if it is filled with vague, general expressions. Oliver Wendell Holmes answered the whole problem when he wrote, 'The use of slang is at once a sign and a cause of mental atrophy.' It causes our vocabularies to waste away for want of nourishment. With a heritage of over half a million words, we cannot afford to impoverish our speaking vocabularies, which, on the whole, are very limited." See also Marguerite E. Jones, "The Case for Standard English," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 22 (October, 1936), for a rather "middle-of-the-road" attitude toward the teaching of pronunciation and enunciation in the college classroom.

¹³ Hall, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

- (1) to write an essay, evaluating his own grammar

- (2) to keep a list in his notebook of all errors in grammar pointed out to him by . . .

his instructor or

his fellow students, or

one particular student assigned to evaluate this aspect of the speech

- (3) to make a list of carelessness in dress or table manners which annoy him the most and which seem to him most significant in revealing basic personality characteristics. Then, the instructor may relate this exercise to grammar faults, stressing the following:

grammar faults show lack of powers of observation

grammar faults imply a disrespect for authority

grammar faults connote inability to change

- b. to gain "socially acceptable" classroom usage, these projects should be helpful:

- (1) to motivate the student to improve his grammar by inviting into the classroom a successful business or professional man who will testify for the instructor

- (2) to take down from each student examples of the grammatical errors he makes in class, mounting these errors on flash cards posted in the room. It is suggested that only one grammatical error per student be posted and that the flash cards contain the names of the students from which the word or phrase was taken. A drill session on these flash cards, once a week, is recommended.

- c. to gain tolerance for language change, it is recommended that examples of the evolutionary processes be given the student:

my: mine = his: HIS¹⁴

He has kicked: He kicked = He has done:

HE DONE¹⁵

I was very frightened: I was very tired = I was awfully frightened: I WAS AWFULLY TIRED¹⁶

booth: booths = goose: GOOSES¹⁷

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 157.

¹⁵ *Loc. cit.*

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 161.

¹⁷ Jespersen, *op. cit.*, p. 129, says "Irregular plurals are often regularized, geese for 'geese,' tooth, knives, etc."

Such quotations as these may also impress the student:

The language of poetry is closely related to slang, in so far as both strive to avoid commonplace and everyday expressions. The difference is that where slang looks only for the striking or unexpected expression . . . poetry looks higher and craves abiding beauty . . .¹⁸

In English noun plurals and verb pasts and past participles, the trend of development is slowly but surely toward analogical leveling of irregularities; even though forms like *gooses*, *nouses*, or *drinked*, *writed* are simply "errors" or "blunders" now, they may perhaps be perfectly normal by two or three hundred years from now. Today's analogical "mistakes" are often tomorrow's competing forms, and day-after-tomorrow's "correct" forms.¹⁹

d. The example appears the most effective way to show that the best of grammar, if worn properly, cannot be a handicap. Study of any of the following speaking situations is recommended:

- (1) F. D. Roosevelt's speech to the Teamster's Union, of September 23, 1944
- (2) Abraham Lincoln's style in the debates with Douglas of 1858
- (3) The stump speaking of Robert M. La Follette Sr. in Wisconsin in 1896 and 1900

WHAT STANDARDS OF PRONUNCIATION SHOULD BE MAINTAINED?

First, what has been the disposition of the Anglophobes and the Anglophiles.

When H. L. Mencken was writing *The American Language* in the middle thirties, the United States was still following a position of political isolation. Although the aftermath of World War I had left Great Britain less powerful than before and had distinctly elevated the world position of the United States, many in this country were still concerned with raising "Americanism" over John Bull. This desire for pre-eminence was not confined to politics, but manifested itself in other areas, language being one

of them. That this striving for "a winner" has now passed is obvious. The present-day American reading Mencken is apt to conclude that here is one Anglophobe who protested too much.

Said Mencken:

He (the American) believes, and on very plausible grounds that American is better on all counts—clearer, more rational, and above all, more charming. And he holds not illogically that there is no reason under the sun why a dialect spoken almost uniformly by nearly 125,000,000 people should yield anything to the dialect of a small minority in a nation of 45,000,000.²⁰

But the contemporary teacher of oral language has become less and less concerned with who is better than whom. A search through *The Quarterly Journal of Speech* reveals only scattered comments on the need for "improved" accent, and in recent years there has been what amounts to a silence on the subject. As the Anglophobes have found their popguns turning into battleships, so the Anglophiles have been quieted by their battleships' turning into pop-guns. With the passing of the pre-eminence of Great Britain in political circles has come also a lessening of her grip on the cultural. Those who are in positions of leadership find it possible and plausible to emulate examples of American pronunciation as well as English pronunciation.²¹

Second, what attitude is being assumed

²⁰ H. L. Mencken, *The American Language* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1937), pp. 610-611. Words in parentheses were added.

²¹ The opposite point of view is maintained by John W. Clark in *British and American English Since 1900* (New York: Philosophical Library, 1951). On p. 325, Clark says, "It is hardly an exaggeration to say that all Americans envy the educated Southern Englishman his pronunciation. The envy expresses itself in various degrees and very various ways, sometimes by the appearance of loathing, but it is envy still. Many of us do not consciously wish we spoke or dared speak like a user of 'Received Standard,' but none of us imagines that any user of Received Standard ever wishes . . . to speak like us."

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 300-301.

¹⁹ Hall, *op. cit.*, p. 158.

toward progressions in pronunciation and toward the allied problem of aesthetics?

Characteristic of the modern approach is Fries' position in his article, "Implications of Modern Linguistic Science:"

Constant change—in word meanings, in pronunciation, and in grammatical structure—is, as far as we know, the normal condition of every language spoken by a living people. . . . These changes are not corruptions that can or should be prevented by academies, dictionaries, or grammars. They do not arise from the "mistakes" of the uneducated. In fact, the speech of the uneducated changes much more slowly than does the speech of the educated group. Nearly all the grammatical forms that are called mistakes in the speech of the uneducated are simply surviving forms from older periods of the English language. The double negative, for example, as in "They didn't take no oil with them," was in Old English the normal stressed negative. Chaucer often used the multiple negative.²²

Here is the same willingness to recognize change in pronunciation as we found in grammar.

In regard to aesthetics, Kantner and West take this position:

Many persons rationalize their likes and dislikes in speech styles on a basis of what they regard as inherent beauty or ugliness of certain sounds or sound combinations; but it is doubtful if any considerable part of the aesthetic value of a vocable is inherently resident within it. It is aesthetically attractive when it is employed in a word with a pleasant, comfortable, or inspiring connotation or if it is a vocable used uniquely by a group of speakers whom the hearer admires, respects, or deems socially worthy. . . .²³

After pointing out that dialect in England is much more associated with class distinctions than in the United States,

²² Charles C. Fries, "Implications of Modern Linguistic Science," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 33 (October, 1947), p. 323.

²³ Claude E. Kantner and Robert West, *Phonetics* (New York: Harper and Bros., 1933), pp. 264-265.

Kantner and West quote H. C. Wyld as follows:

Everyone knows that there is a kind of English which is neither provincial nor vulgar, a type which most people would willingly speak if they could, and desire to speak if they do not. . . . I suggested that this is the best kind of English, not only because it is spoken by those often very properly called "the best people," but because it has two great advantages that make it intrinsically superior to every other type of English speech—the extent to which it is current throughout the country, and the marked distinctiveness and clarity in its sounds.²⁴

The authors of *Phonetics* add, "We question the process of rationalization by which Mr. Wyld arrived at his second 'advantage.' Since he belongs to that class referred to as the 'best people,' he is hardly in a position to speak without prejudice about the intrinsic superiority of his own speech."²⁵

Without doubt, much of the rejection of "Received Standard" in America can be explained as a resentment of associating accent with class. Kantner and West say later that the older America gets, the more class distinctions will be associated with accent.²⁶ Could it be that modern methods of transportation and communication will belie such a philosophy?

We would now evaluate Mencken's *The American Language* as follows:

1. The present superiority of the United States over Great Britain in military power has resulted in a removal of pressure by American for superiority over Britain in language. We now seem to assume that since we have the larger house, it is less important how we furnish it.

2. The great influence of the motion picture, television, and radio on the speech of the average American has resulted in much standardization. It has also rubbed off much of the edge of the extreme American dialects. Constant

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 265.

²⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 265-266.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 266.

travel by automobile, airplane, and train, plus the great mingling of dialects caused by the uprooting of many American in World Wars I and II, has produced what many seeking a standard language would term "an improvement." Some credit must also be given to the many teachers of speech and English for their efforts to reduce extreme nasality, distracting regionalisms, etc.

3. The American resists any attempt to associate "accent" with social and economic stature. His support of Truman in the 1948 campaign over the "cultured-voiced" Dewey shows evidence of this; on the other hand, labor leader Clement Atlee has an accent roughly comparable to the English Tory.

At any rate, we seem to need no more Emersons to insist upon American scholarship in the pronunciation of our English. The position of world leadership, so apparent to the American who pays his income taxes, has made us less introverted than was Mencken in the 1930's. Likewise, the voices demanding imitation of the speech of Southern England have been quieted by the same factors.

But what of the pressure for a standard, elevated English pronunciation, be it British or American? In 1933, Thomas C. Trueblood reported, "I am not one of those who believe that we must preserve nationalisms and sectionalisms in order that we may have a living museum of English speech. I am for approaching as nearly as possible to a universal spoken English that may be instantly understood in London, Boston, Los Angeles, Capetown, Melbourne, and Calcutta."²⁷ Even Sir Winston Churchill is reported enthusiastic about the radical compromise, Basic English, in his address at Harvard University on September 6, 1943.²⁸

²⁷ Thomas C. Trueblood, "Spoken English," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 19 (November, 1933), p. 520.

²⁸ Tom Burne Haber, "The Present Status of Basic English in the United States," *The Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 34 (December, 1948), p. 483.

Those who wish for a standard, elevated English generally demand that one say "either" as [aiðə], "aunt" as [ant], and "theatre" as [θiətrə]. Certainly an opposite point of view is expressed by Bertrand Russell in his essays on "The Impact of America on European Culture":

Educated people throughout Europe, and peasants on the Continent and in Scotland and Ireland, have a certain beauty of diction: language is not merely a means of communication, but a vehicle for expressing the emotions of joy or sorrow, love or hate, that are the material of poetry. Words, many of them, have beauty; they have a history, and we are, each in our own day, responsible for handing on an unimpaired tradition in diction and enunciation.²⁹

It does not appear wise to strive either for a standardized pronunciation or for a preservation of past variations. But, in keeping with Russell's attitude toward preserving dialect, it is difficult to discourage the Gulf Coast pronunciations of [fɪlɪ], [tɔɪd], [hɪfɪd], and [dowz]. Too often we find a Midwesterner who pronounces "pajamas" as [pədʒæ'məz] insisting that the Southerner from the Mississippi Gulf Coast say [lɜ:n] instead of [lɪfɪn].

Happily enough, the leveling influence of radio and television, plus our improved communication systems, seem to be working this problem out for us without too much conscious effort on the part of those involved. Therefore, the following attitude on the part of the classroom teacher of oral communication is recommended:

1. Each student should be made aware of what sort of an accent he has and wherein it varies most decidedly from "general American."³⁰

²⁹ Bertrand Russell, "The Political and Cultural Influence," *The Impact of America on European Culture* (Boston: The Beacon Press, 1951), pp. 13-14.

³⁰ The position expressed by Margaret Prendergast McLean in her *Good American Speech*

2. What is "socially acceptable" in the classroom should govern oral usage in speech assignments. In general, a "common sense" approach toward dictionary recommendations will suffice. Thus, INsurance should be discouraged for inSURance, and HOtel for hoTEL; tow-MAHtow should be discouraged for tuhMAY-duh and SIHoot for SOOT.

3. As in the case of grammar, a tolerance for dialectal differences should be encouraged.

4. The student should be asked to make understandable and effective his native speech pattern, rather than to seek for an umbrella, probably a leaky one, to protect himself from the strengths of his own community.³¹

In an effort to effectuate in the classroom the suggestions above, the instructor may find the following of use:

- Early in the course the student should be exposed to a recording of his own speech and given a *written* analysis of its strengths and weaknesses in essay form rather than on a "check sheet." Classroom discussion of these analyses seems imperative.
- The same procedure recommended for establishing "socially acceptable" grammar is recommended for establishing "socially acceptable" pronunciation. In addition, it is suggested that students listen to local and national speakers, writing an analyzation of

(New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1952), p. 53: "It is pretty universally acknowledged, both in America and elsewhere, that the speech of the general public in America is very far below the standard which is expected in a country where compulsory general education, widely distributed wealth, and unlimited opportunities for higher learning prevail."

³¹ This would necessitate blurring any sharp distinction between "Standard English" and non-standard English. Thus, Leonard Bloomfield's advice to the user of "standard English" might be offered with little reservation to the user of "non-standard English:" "The only danger that threatens the native speaker of a standard language is artificiality: if he is snobbish, priggish, or timid, he may fill his speech (at least, when he is on his good behavior) with spelling-pronunciations and grotesque 'correct' forms. The speaker to whom the standard language is native, will hardly ever find good reason for replacing a form that is natural to him. Variants such as *it's I*; *it's me* have been used for centuries in the upper levels of English speech; there is no reason why anyone should make himself uncomfortable about them." See Leonard Bloomfield, *Language* (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1933), p. 498.

the pronunciation strengths and weaknesses of those selected.

- Clark, in speaking of the tendency of some Americans to add "y" or "w" in certain diphthongs, expressed the intolerant attitude toward dialectal differences that should be discouraged: "I find this kind of sound extra-ordinarily grating, as I think most Americans do who do not utter it. It is, I believe, one of the few exceptions to the general truth that most Americans . . . can hear other Americans speak without loathing and despising them."³²

There seems little or no harm in saying "fie-yuhr" and "ow-wuhr." And there is much to be feared in inferring that a student has a particular brand of pronunciation that is "extra-ordinarily grating."

Citation of the following may help the student gain a sense of the variation in language.

*Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary*³³ allows the following:

æd-vâr-tîz-mənt	AND	əd-vēr-tîz-mənt
kəŋ'pən	AND	kū'pən
əd-ŭlt'	AND	əd'ŭlt
kŕĕk	AND	kŕĕk (dialect or colloq.)
bō.kā'	AND	bō.kā'
vō.məns'	AND	vō'məns
tō.mā'tō	AND	tō.mā'tō
vī'ō-lîn'	AND	(attrib. to) vī'ō-lîn'
āv'tik	AND	āv'tic
vōf	AND	vōf

On the other hand, *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary* does not allow for the following:³⁴

It should also be pointed out that both F. D. Roosevelt and Winston Churchill spoke "dialects" to their constituents. They were

³² Eric Partridge and John W. Clark, *British and American English Since 1900* (New York: Philosophical Library, 1951), pp. 277-278.

³³ *Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary* (Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Co., 1951).

³⁴ Adwin W. Green et al point out in their *Complete College Composition* (New York: F. S. Crofts, 1945), p. 99: "Dictionaries simply attempt to record generally accepted pronunciations. Works on pronunciation, the language of correct speakers, and the pronunciations used by the majority of the people all determine the standard pronunciation of a word." Hall, *op. cit.*, p. 6, would go so far as to say, "A dictionary or grammar is not as good an authority for your speech as the way you yourself speak."

rēs·tō·rānt'
 tēl·ē·grām'
 ūm·brēl·ā
 vē·hī'k'l
 bāb'·trst
 vī·ō·lāt'
 ā/jū·tīv
 tē·mā'dū
 chā'klit
 sōf'mōr

merely socially acceptable dialects. Considerable of the disparaging remarks toward former President Harry Truman might be attributed to a lack of respect for his Midwestern, Missouri dialect, which is not particularly "fashionable."

- d. In order to encourage the student to make most effective his native speech, he should have opportunity to hear at length good speech of his area.

- (1) Visitors to the classroom from the local community as well as recordings of regional speakers, should prove helpful.
- (2) The local color strengths of the following may be cited:

Don McNeil of NBC's "Breakfast Club"; Lowell Thomas; Jack Webb of "Dragnet"; Marlene Dietrich; Fred Allen; Jane Pickens; John Sparkman, Senator from Alabama; Fibber McGee and Molly; Will Rogers; John L. Lewis; Fiorello LaGuardia.

SUMMARY

Any concluding remarks should point to the similarity of the problems encountered in seeking acceptable grammar to those met in searching for acceptable pronunciation. The attitudes of this article may be expressed as follows:

First, the speech student in high school and in college should seek to establish speech which meets, with reason, the demands of acceptable grammars.

Second, the "within reason" clause above

should allow him not only to retain the strengths of his regionalisms but also to be proud of them as a part of his heritage.

Third, the general attitude that language change is an integral part of a dynamic, interesting world should be made clear.

Those who would oppose change may do well to heed the words of the English historian, Trevelyan:

One outcome of the Norman Conquest was the making of the English language. As a result of Hastings, the Anglo-Saxon tongue, the speech of Alfred and Bede, was exiled from hall and bower, from court and cloister, and was despised as a peasant's jargon, the talk of ignorant serfs. It ceased almost, though not quite, to be a written language. The learned and the pedantic lost all interest in its forms, for the clergy talked Latin and the gentry talked French. Now when a language is seldom written and is not an object of interest to scholars, it quickly adapts itself in the mouths of plain people to the needs and uses of life. This may be either good or evil, according to circumstances. If the grammar is clumsy and ungraceful, it can be altered much more easily when there are no grammarians to protest. And so it fell out in England. During the three centuries when our native language was a peasants' dialect, it lost its clumsy inflections and elaborate genders, and acquired the grace, suppleness and adaptability which are among its chief merits. At the same time it was enriched by many French words and ideas. . . . There is no more romantic episode in the history of man than this underground growth and unconscious self-preparation of the despised island *patois*, destined ere long to 'burst forth into sudden blaze,' to be spoken in every quarter of the globe, and to produce a literature with which only that of ancient Hellas is comparable. It is symbolic of the fate of the English race itself after Hastings, fallen to rise nobler, trodden under foot only to be trodden into shape.³⁵

³⁵ G. M. Trevelyan, *History of England* (New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1945), pp. 131-132.

CURRENT CREDIT-HOUR TEACHING LOAD POLICIES AND PRACTICES IN SELECTED AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

James H. Henning

SINCE 1956, the Administrative Policies and Practices Interest Group has been studying the problem of teaching loads. This problem was indicated by the greatest number of the members of the group as one they would like first to explore. The current findings cover the years 1956-57 and 1957-58. The author did the initial investigation on credit-hour loads reported here, and Professor LeRoy Laase of the University of Nebraska has continued the fact-finding process on *contact-hour* loads.*

This study was predicated upon the hypothesis that speech departments have teaching load problems somewhat different from those of other departments, due, primarily, to the number of inherent non-credit functions in speech training programs; with a corollary hypothesis that the administrators of these departments might be experiencing difficulty with their school administrators in obtaining sufficient reduction in credit-hour loads to compensate for time put in on non-profit, or extra-curricular work.

In these times of larger enrollments, curriculum changes, teacher shortages, and salary adjustments, faculty teaching loads become an issue of increased importance. Professor Henning, representing the Administrative Policies Interest Group, reports recent findings. He is Chairman of the Department of Speech of the University of West Virginia. After completing his A.B. degree at Cornell College (1925), he took his M.A. (1934) and Ph.D. (1943) degrees at Northwestern University.

*Editor's Note: Professor Laase's study will appear in the November, 1959, issue of *The Speech Teacher*.

Three hundred questionnaires were distributed to selected college and university speech department administrators. One hundred forty-four (nearly 50%) replied. These questionnaires were designed to discover (1) the *maximum* CREDIT-HOUR teaching load for each staff member who had no extra-curricular responsibilities; (2) the *minimum* CREDIT-HOUR teaching load for each staff member who had no extra-curricular responsibilities; (3) whether or not in determining credit-hour teaching load more weight was given (a) to graduate courses over undergraduate courses and (b) to advanced courses over beginning courses; (4) whether or not, in determining credit-hour teaching load, there was a minimum-student-load-per-teacher policy (this question proved to be confusing in its wording and could not be considered in final tabulation of replies); (5) whether the administration or the department set policies for maximum and minimum loads; (6) what non-credit functions or activities (debate, plays, etc.) were carried on by each department; (7) whether or not those staff members assigned these non-credit functions were compensated (a) by increased salary or (b) by a reduction in credit-hour teaching load, and if the latter, by how many hours for each function.

Additional information was sought on such items as whether or not the departmental head believed that the method of

credit-hour allowance for non-credit functions, as practiced in his department, was satisfactory; whether or not he thought that his administrative problems were different from those of other departments such as History, English, etc.; and just how well he had been able to work out his problems of credit-hour and non-credit hour loads with his administration. Although some did not reply to these last questions, those who did indicate by 108 to 6 that they did believe their departmental problems were different from those of other departments. (This strongly supports the hypothesis upon which this study was based.) Fifty-two replied that they were experiencing difficulty in convincing their administrative officials that special adjustments in the speech department were necessary; fifty-three replied to this in the negative. (The fifty-two affirmative replies support the corollary hypothesis of this study and would seem to indicate a problem worthy of study.) Sixty-three stated that they had been able to work out a satisfactory system of

adjustment with their administration, but forty replied they had not. In spite of this, however, fifty-seven said that at their institutions this problem had not been solved, while only forty-eight replied that it had. As to whether or not the administrator was satisfied with the method of determining reductions in teaching load for non-credit functions as practiced in his institution, fifty-two replied "yes" and fifty-one replied "no."

The most frequently mentioned non-credit activities were, as might be guessed, debate coaching (92) and play directing (87). These were followed in frequency by directing contests (68), coaching extemporaneous speakers (62) and orators (60), the construction of stage scenery (58), producing radio shows (57), educational theater (44), experimental theater (36), voice recordings (32), and clinic cases (22). Infrequently mentioned items were directing a speakers' bureau (3), supervision of a radio station (3), research (2), departmental committee work (1), and supervising a high school summer speech

TABLE I
SHOWING THE DISTRIBUTION OF CREDIT-HOURS EQUIVALENTS BY WHICH TEACHING LOADS ARE REDUCED FOR EACH LISTED ACTIVITY AND THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS REDUCING THE LOAD BY THAT FIGURE.

Activity	Credit Hour Reduction												
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Deb. Coaching	21	1	3	38	4	3	5						
Dir. Plays*	15		5	50	6	3	3						
Voice Rec.	21		1	4	1								
Educ. Theater	13	1	2	13	2	1							
Exper. Theater	12	1	2	8	1	1	2						
Scenery Const.	13		1	32	2	1	7		2	3			1
Coach. Orat.	22	2	1	9	1								
Coach. Extem. Spkers	22	1	1	9	1								
Dir. Contests	27		3	9	1	2							
Forensics**	3		2	17	3	2	5		1				
Clinic				5	2	1	3	1		4	1		
Radio Sta. Mgr.	2			1			2						
Speakers Bureau				1									
H. S. Speech Inst.				1									
Theatre***	4			4	1	1	7						
Pro. Radio Shows	12		8	24	1	4	2					1	

*Not an accurate picture due to the fact that many replies did not show whether the specified reduction was for each play or for the semester or term.

**Includes debate, oratory, extemp., and contest directing.

***Includes undifferentiated directing, scene construction, educational and experimental theater.

institute (1). In only seven instances was it indicated that instead of allowing credit-hour reductions in teaching load, salary additions were made for this work. Twenty-two replies indicated that neither salary increments nor reduction in teaching load were practiced at those institutions for this extra-curricular work. Several administrators indicated that they had tried to solve this problem by allowing enrolled students varying amounts of credit for participation, thus being able

to show credit-hour teaching on semester reports to the administration. Nearly all who indicated that this was the plan at their schools also indicated dissatisfaction with this method of dealing with the problem.

The other method of meeting this problem, that of reducing credit-hour loads for staff members assigned to these non-credit duties, indicated great lack of uniformity, as shown in Table I.

Examination of the above table of distribution shows that it is possible to

TABLE II
SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF *Maximum Credit-Hour Teaching Loads* FOR SPEECH TEACHERS IN 130 COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

Hrs.	Semester					Quarter				
	Instr.	Asst. Prof.	Asso. Prof.	Prof.	Chr.	Instr.	Asst. Prof.	Asso. Prof.	Prof.	Chr.
2										1
3					1					
4					1					
5										
6					12					4
7					1					
8					3					2
9		1	3	7	14				1	
10				2	5				1	2
11		1	2	1					1	
12	27	28	27	27	31	5	6	8	6	4
13	2	2	2	2	2					
14	6	8	7	6	1		1			
15	42	39	36	30	9	9	8	7	6	2
16	11	8	8	8	4	3	2	2	2	1
17	1	1	1	1	1					

TABLE III
SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF *Minimum Credit-Hour Teaching Loads* FOR SPEECH TEACHERS IN 130 COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

Hrs.	Semester					Quarter				
	Instr.	Asst. Prof.	Asso. Prof.	Prof.	Chr.	Instr.	Asst. Prof.	Asso. Prof.	Prof.	Chr.
0					1					1
1										
2					1					1
3					2					2
4					2					
5										
6			1	2	15				1	2
7					3					
8	1	1	2	2	3				1	1
9	5	9	8	10	15	2	2	3	3	2
10	2	5	5	6	8	1	2	3	2	
11	1				1					
12	35	32	32	30	21	8	7	6	5	3
13	3	3	4	5	1					
14	8	8	6	4	1					
15	25	25	21	19	8	3	3	2	2	2
16	3	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	1

determine a mode for each activity. The modes would show a three-hour credit reduction in teaching load for the debate coach, the play director, the director of radio shows, the clinic director, and the scenery man, with no reduction in teaching load for making voice recordings, experimental theater, coaching extempore speakers or orators, or directing contests. Educational theater shows two modes—either no hour reduction or a three-credit hour allowance. Yet the modes completely distort the true picture the table presents: the wide range of difference from no reduction at all to as many as twelve hours for the sixteen activities listed.

Similar disparities are indicated in Table II, which shows the distribution of maximum credit-hour teaching loads, and in Table III, which shows the

distribution of minimum credit-hour teaching loads for those departments participating in the survey.

Again using the mode as the measure of central tendency in the tables immediately above, it becomes evident that in those speech departments reporting in this survey, regardless of the size of the department—that is, numbers of instructors, students taught, courses offered, etc.—each member of the modal staff, unaffected by academic rank, teaches a maximum of fifteen hours (either semester or quarter, it makes no difference), and a minimum of twelve hours. Again, however, the chief characteristic shown by the distribution tabulation is diversity rather than central tendency, which characteristic is also present in the results comparing the teaching load of the departmental chair-

TABLE IV
SHOWING A COMPARISON OF THE MAXIMUM CREDIT-HOUR TEACHING LOAD OF THE DEPARTMENTAL CHAIRMAN WITH THE MAXIMUM CREDIT-HOUR TEACHING LOAD OF HIS STAFF
MEMBERS IN 130 COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

Number Credit Hours Reduction from Staff Maximum	Number of Colleges and Universities
0	26
1	2
2	3
3	33
4	6
5	3
6	7
7	2
8 or more	11

TABLE V
SHOWING A COMPARISON OF THE MINIMUM CREDIT-HOUR TEACHING LOAD OF THE DEPARTMENTAL CHAIRMAN WITH THE MINIMUM CREDIT-HOUR TEACHING LOAD OF HIS STAFF
MEMBERS IN 130 COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

Number Credit Hours Reduction from Staff Minimum	Number of Colleges and Universities
0	29
1	1
2	7
3	20
4	6
5	5
6	19
7	1
8 or more	16

man with the maximum and minimum loads of his staff members (Tables IV and V).

The above two tables, like all the others, indicate that, although a mode would show that departmental chairmen have a three-hour reduction from the maximum load of their staff members to compensate for their administrative duties, and no reduction at all from the minimum credit-hour figure, such a figure is far from representative of the disparity that is indicated by the range of from no hour reduction to eight or more in both instances.

To extend the confusion of policy still further, replies also indicated that in determining credit-hour teaching loads, nineteen institutions gave more weight to graduate courses than to undergraduate courses (sixty-five replied that they did not do this), and fourteen stated that they gave more weight to advanced courses than to beginning courses (ninety-seven did not). None indicated how much additional weight was given, or in what way it was determined.

According to the replies received, these policies of load and load allowances were determined in fifty-four cases by the school administration, in

eighteen cases by the department itself, and in forty cases by the department and administration acting jointly.

This beginning study of teaching-load problems in speech departments did not anticipate the discovery of any answers. That was not its purpose. Its function was solely that of an attempt to find out whether problems existed and if so, of what nature. Certainly, unless we are satisfied with complete confusion, diversity, and a somewhat chaotic condition, the results clearly indicate that problems do exist, and they have suggested the nature of some of those problems. The spread, range, disparity, and lack of some degree of uniformity existing in our departments of speech would appear to indicate opportunities for constructive work by our professional organizations. The need for recommendations from our professional associations as to minimum standards, formulas for evaluating non-credit speech functions, maximum loads, and the like seems apparent. In the hands of departmental administrators such recommendations would provide additional "talking points" and "tools" to be used in conferences with deans and presidents who do not always understand the problems which are peculiar to speech department functioning and administration.

A SURVEY OF THE USE OF PROFICIENCY EXAMINATIONS IN SPEECH IN FIFTY COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Paul W. Keller, William Seifrit, Jr., and John Baldwin

I

INCREASED enrollment is a fact of life in most colleges and universities in these days, and the signs seem to say that the biggest bulge is yet to come. The resulting increase in the teaching load most teachers may be asked to carry raises the very pertinent question, "Are there ways in which the educational process can be facilitated without increasing the teacher's load?" Since proficiency tests hold out the possibility for at least one of the solutions to this problem, and since they also offer the possibility of making advanced work available to the student sooner than would otherwise be possible, it seemed wise to try to find out what practices are being used regarding such tests in the field of speech.¹

The authors' interest in proficiency examinations stems from the increasing need for screening, selection, and proper placement of students in college speech courses. The writers are all members of the Department of Speech at Manchester (Indiana) College. Paul Keller (B.A. Manchester, 1935; M.Ph. Wisconsin, 1940; Ph.D. Northwestern, 1950, is Chairman and Professor of Speech. William Seifrit (M.A. Ohio University, 1957) is Director of Forensics and Assistant Professor. John Baldwin is a junior member of the department.

¹ For related studies see the symposium on "Meeting the Problems of Rising Enrollments," published in *The Speech Teacher* for March, 1958. The symposium includes articles by Gordon Hostettler ("Rising College Enrollments and Teaching Methods: A Survey," pp. 99-103); David C. Phillips (Graduate Study and Teacher Supply," pp. 104-109); George T. Tade ("Meeting the Rising Enrollments in the Small Liberal Arts College," pp. 110-114).

To make the study, which purports to be simply an exploratory survey, it was decided to canvass one hundred colleges and universities, selected so as to be representative of 1) geographical areas, 2) differences in size, 3) differences in type of curriculum, and 4) differences in type of administration (i.e. state-operated and privately-operated).

A simple questionnaire was designed and sent to one hundred schools fitting the pattern just described. Fifty schools responded (and it was discovered, fortunately, that they were representative of the four categories mentioned above). It is upon their reactions that the material presented in this summary is based.

II

How Widely Are Proficiency Tests in Speech Used?

Of the fifty schools which returned the questionnaires, 34% never had used any type of proficiency examination in speech. A slightly larger percentage, 36%, are currently using some form of speech proficiency exam. Of this latter figure, two departments indicated that they intend to expand their use of such tests while one department indicated an intention of discontinuing its use. Departments of speech which have used such exams in the past but which do not now use them accounted for 12 per cent of the total number of returns.

TABLE I
BREAKDOWN OF FREQUENCY OF USE OF
PROFICIENCY TESTS IN SPEECH

Never used proficiency exams	17
Presently using proficiency exams	18
Plan expansion of use	2
Plan to discontinue	1
Not presently using; plan to intro.	6
Used previously but not presently	5
Presently use in Voice & Articulation	4
Plan to introduce in Voice & Articulation	1

III

With What Courses Are Proficiency Examinations Used?

In all, twenty-nine individual course titles were mentioned by the departments which returned the questionnaires. These are listed in Table II.

TABLE II
COURSES RELATED TO PROFICIENCY
EXAMINATIONS

Effective oral communication
Fundamentals of oral communication (speaking and listening)
Fundamentals of oral communication (voice and diction)
Fundamentals of speech
Fundamentals
Communication skills
Public speaking (5)*
Beginning public speaking
Principles of speech*
Extempore speaking
Principles of effective speaking
Speech (3)
Speech improvement
Voice improvement (2)
Speech clinic
Voice and articulation (2)
Voice and Diction (4)
Training for stutterers
Speech correction
Speech for foreign students
Training the speaking voice
Interpretive reading
Oral interpretation
Interpretive speech
Beginning oral interpretive reading
Discussion
Practice teaching (all subjects)

*Refers to frequency with which course was reported.

Some generalizations may be made from the course titles listed by the various departments which returned the questionnaires. Approximately one-half of all the courses listed were concerned

primarily with improvement of the speaking voice. The titles of one-fourth of the courses listed indicated that they were concerned primarily with public speaking. Six course titles indicated that they dealt primarily with using the voice to communicate the meaning of literature. The remaining course titles could not be categorized with respect to specific speech subject areas.

IV

What Alternatives Are Open to Students who "Pass" Their Proficiency Examination?

It was assumed, in the survey, that at least one specific course was related to the proficiency test and the alternatives thereto. The construction and phrasing of the alternatives in the questionnaire was based on this assumption. Although everyone who returned the questionnaire did not fill in this particular blank, a definite pattern was readily discernible. The pattern may be stated thus: If the course is required, the requirement is waived and credit is not given. Four departments indicated that an advanced course must be elected if the student passed the proficiency examination.

V

What Is the Nature of Proficiency Examinations Now In Use?

The proficiency examinations reported took on almost as many forms as there were schools reporting. It is not possible, therefore, to pass along a sort of "typical composite." It might be useful, however, to report some examples.

At one school, all entering students are asked to record an interview in which they 1) respond to general questions, and 2) read orally three paragraphs entitled *Commuting* taken from Bender & Kleinfeld's *Principles Practice of Speech Correction*. If, in the judgment of the examiner, they do not measure up to

standard, they are required to take a course in speech. If passed, the student is considered to have fulfilled his speech requirement for graduation.

Another school offers students the opportunity to write a two-hour examination covering principles of speech composition and delivery and techniques in group discussion. If the student passes this test, he must prepare a 6-8 minute speech and successfully engage in an informal discussion of it once he has presented it. On successful completion of both parts of the test, students are excused from their speech requirement for graduation.

Still another school offers students opportunity to present a 10-minute original talk on a topic of their own choosing, prepared in advance; to follow this with a 3-minute impromptu speech on some current topic; and to take a written test over the textbook for the beginning course. If he successfully completes these tests, the speech requirement is waived for him.

A great many more kinds of examination content could be reported from the survey, but among them a few clusters of characteristics are discernible:

Most frequently included—

Some type of 5-10 minute speech

A section of oral reading

Less frequently included—

Written test over text or general speech principles

Interview with student

Of sixteen schools reporting a plan of their own, eleven use the proficiency examination as a screening device; that is, require it of all students in a category. Five of the sixteen offer the proficiency examination as an option for the student.

VI

What Are the Reactions to Proficiency Exams on Campuses Where They Are Currently Being Used?

As might be expected, the reaction to present programs canvassed in the survey was not uniform. Exactly half of those departments of speech which currently employ such examinations and which filled in this portion of the questionnaire indicated dissatisfaction with the exams. A corresponding number reacted favorably to their use. Some typical reactions, each taken from a different report, are paraphrased below:

Unfavorable: Students refuse to take the test. They would rather take the course.

It did not seem worth the time and trouble it took to administer it.

Students who could pass the test don't take it; those who need the course present themselves for examination. We are not reaching the right people.

Favorable: We are able to sift out those needing specific training. We discover talent for our drama program and for our forensic program. We help our teacher candidates.

No dissatisfaction with the proficiency exam except that teachers of the course believe that students should be allowed to take such exams in public speaking and oral interpretation as well.

We have used proficiency exams for about ten years and like them.

VII

What Conclusions and Interpretations Can be Drawn Regarding the Survey Results?

1) There is widespread interest among speech departments regarding the use of proficiency examinations. This interest assumes added importance when viewed in the light of the rapidly increasing college population and the not-so-rapidly increasing capacity to meet the demands for higher education made by this population. As more and more students enter college, educators will most certainly affirm the thesis that students begin (and finish) college with varying degrees of ability. This concept has a special meaning for those in speech edu-

cation. For the student of superior ability the proficiency exam in speech can provide a means of accelerating his college program. For school administrators, such exams can help reduce already over-crowded basic speech courses. For the instructor in basic speech courses, the proficiency test may allow more time to be devoted to those students of average ability who require special help and guidance. Probably most important, this type of examination can provide a means whereby the superior student can begin advanced work sooner and gain more from his college work. The widespread interest revealed by those who returned the questionnaire is indicative of their awareness of the potential of the proficiency exam.

2) No specific trend toward the use of proficiency exams can be determined, at least on the basis of this survey. Those questionnaires which were returned were divided approximately equally between departments of speech which use no such exams and those which do.

3) Approximately one-half of the courses with which proficiency exams are used are concerned with improvement of the voice. Whether this says that voice aspects can be more effectively tested than can other aspects of speech, discussion, etc. remains a moot question, awaiting further research.

4) Dissatisfaction with the proficiency test program usually centers around ad-

ministrative problems. Rearranging students' schedules, finding time to test students, etc., were common problems. The results reveal the obvious, namely that departments of speech must analyze their own problems and attempt to solve them within the framework of their own organizations.

5) There is widespread concern regarding the validity and reliability of proficiency examinations. It is hard to draw conclusions regarding this matter, since the purpose and construction of such exams varies with the educational philosophy of the departments of speech throughout the country. One observation, however, may be made. Proficiency exams in speech should be constructed with the objectives and purposes of specific courses in mind. This may provide some measure of accuracy in determining whether or not a student is proficient in a given course area.

VIII

This survey has, to be sure, barely touched on the possibilities of the proficiency examination in speech. The potential of such an examination has yet to be measured. The problems of administering it are similarly unaccounted for. However, judging by the interest shown by departments across the country, the merits and faults of this type of exam are being weighed and considered with care. It is hoped that this study will stimulate the probing process.

THE GRADUATE RECORD EXAMINATION AND THE SMALL COLLEGE

Lionel Crocker

DENISON University, like every other college in the land, seeks to get an objective view of its work through frequent examinations. Denison benefits from comparing itself with itself and with other institutions of learning. From the beginning of the college experience to the end, the Denison student must face examinations. The entering freshman is required to take the Scholastic Aptitude Test. The scores on these entering tests often determine admission or rejection. At the conclusion of the four years, the student must take a comprehensive examination in his major subject.* Outside examiners promote objectivity. At the beginning of the eighth semester, all Denison students have been required to take the graduate record examination, both in the general and in the special areas. The Department of Speech was included in the blanket requirement in regard to the specialized area of the Graduate Record Examination until it was found after several years that the examination was not an objective test of the average speech major and his interest. After presenting to the administration data similar to what will be found in the following pages, the

Department of Speech was excused from the blanket requirement in the specialized area. The speech students continue to take the examination in the general area, but from now on the examination in the specialized area of speech will be an option.

At present, the GRE in speech is based on the concept of a department composed of such areas as theatre, speech correction, radio and television, public address, and oral reading with an equal emphasis on each one. The questions of the GRE were prepared by specialists in these areas who teach in the large universities like The Ohio State University and Purdue University. Now the Department of Speech in the large university, as an administrative unit, is relatively a new corporate being. Yet the Department of Speech in the small college, under various titles in the college catalogue, has been in existence for a hundred years or more, seeking to do its best in meeting the needs of a specific situation. For example, at Denison the main emphasis of the Department of Speech, for most of its existence, has been on public speaking. The work in theatre is in a separate department. Within the past ten years, we have included a class in speech correction and one in radio and television. Both of these are largely text book courses with little, if any, clinic or studio work. I wonder if this is not the story of many speech departments in small colleges throughout the country. Perhaps, it is this disparity between what the GRE

Supplementing his earlier article on speech examinations for the small college, Professor Crocker adds discerning comments on the problem. Well-known as a writer, teacher, and active professional worker, he provides interesting leadership among speech educators in the liberal arts college particularly. His Ph.D. is from the University of Michigan (1933).

*See *The Speech Teacher*, Volume VII, No. 2 (March, 1958), 127-129, for an explanation of The Denison University Comprehensive Examination in speech.

covers and what the small college actually offers in speech that explains why the GRE is not more widely used.

Let us take a closer look at what we have been doing at Denison and thus show why the GRE could not give us the objective picture we seek in an examination. We have from 70 to 80 majors in speech each year with about 22 seniors graduating. We require a minimum of 24 hours in the department for a major. Of these 24 we require the following: a 3 hour course in speech correction, a 3 hour course in radio and television, a 3 hour course in oral reading, a 2 hour seminar, and a 2 hour course in the history of rhetorical theory—a total of 13 hours. The other 11 hours, to complete the major, can be taken in such courses as the study of great orators, business and professional speaking, intercollegiate debating, discussion and debate, voice and diction, advanced oral reading. Thus, it can be seen that the emphasis still is on public speaking for our majors. Such a program seems to appeal to quite a few Denison undergraduates who are headed for business and the professions. I think it is unusual for a student body of 1300 to have 6% of its number speech majors.

We counsel our majors carefully. We try to find out their individual interests. If a student is interested in teaching speech, we try to build a program, including theatre, that will prepare him for his work. We often advise him to go to summer school or graduate school to take work we do not offer. If the student is interested in speech correction, we suggest visits to speech clinics in cities nearby, extensive readings, and work in psychology. Often we advise transferring to another institution at the end of the sophomore year to get more work in speech correction or to stay on at Denison and get the A.B.

and then go to graduate school. Denison is a liberal arts college and has fought to keep out the vocational and professional emphasis. For most of our majors, who expect to go into business and the professions, we counsel such courses as accounting, business law, marketing, philosophy, government, psychology for his electives. In our general education program about 60 hours are required. The major in speech adds 24 hours to this. Therefore, the student has 36 hours of electives to make up his total budget of 120 scholastic hours. We think this is better for our speech majors than for us to fill up these 36 hours with more theatre, more speech correction, more radio and television. To be sure, such a program would insure our students doing very well on the GRE, but such a program would have been dictated by the Educational Testing Service of Princeton, N. J. rather than designed by us in Granville, Ohio to meet our needs.

With such a background and attitude, let us take a look at how the Denison students fared with the GRE examination as it is now constituted. In the spring of 1957 Denison had 20 students taking the GRE in speech. The national mean in speech was 432. The Denison mean for the examination was 374. Yet one student made a score of 580 and another made 540. Two others were well above the national mean with scores of 450 and 490. Two students were almost on the national mean with scores of 430. Four students were between 400 and 420. But seven students were between 330 and 380, and three students were between 250 and 270. Thus 10 students were below the national mean. Anyone looking at the national mean score and the Denison mean score would conclude that the Department of Speech at Denison was failing to prepare 50% of its students to pass the GRE. And that is

true, because the GRE sets up goals that Denison has been unwilling to set up for the average undergraduate in speech.

How about the students who did very well on the examination? These were students with special interests in the theatre, in speech correction, in radio and television. They took extra work, read more widely, went to summer school at other institutions. One student had 12 hours in the theatre. He might have been a theatre major. Another student had a radio program in a nearby city. Another student with a special interest in speech correction visited speech clinics, worked with students with speech defects, read widely. Now, of course, we might limit our appeal as a department to these few students in order to show up well on the GRE, but would we be serving Denison as well?

Now it is worth pointing out that the national mean in speech was arrived at by 152 students in 25 institutions taking the GRE in speech. This is an average of 6 students per institution. From this data it must be concluded that the national mean is arrived at by students taking the GRE as an option. Thus the rank and file student in speech at Denison who asked to compete with the student who took the examination because he had a special interest in taking it and wanted to do well. Maybe he was going to graduate school and needed the score for entrance. If Denison had permitted only those six students, who passed 430 up to 580 on the examination, to take the GRE as an option, the record would have looked exceedingly well for Denison and would have boosted the national mean. And that is exactly what we are going to do in the future: the GRE is to be an option. If a student, on his own, is willing to do the extra work

to prepare for the GRE examination, he will be permitted to take the examination. In passing, one might be justified in asking why the examination is given by so few institutions to so few students. Is the examination meeting a need? Is there something impractical in the examination? Is there no need?

Now having looked closely at the Denison experience with the GRE and at the Denison decision to make the GRE an option, let us examine what other institutions, similar to Denison, have done with the GRE. I shall quote directly from the letters I received from colleagues in speech in these institutions. Howard H. Martin: "Pomona has never used the graduate record examination in speech. While I was teaching at Allegheny, we did use the GRE in those departments who wished their seniors to take it. At the time I was unaware that there was a specialized test in the area of speech." John W. Hurlburt: "According to the information we have at Allegheny there is no speech test in their regular program. We have not required the general test of majors in our department, but they may take it if they care to." John R. Woodruff: "All seniors at Carleton planning a graduate program, and only those, take the GRE." Robert G. Gunderson: "At Oberlin we have given the GRE when it has seemed to us of advantage in getting majors graduate assistantships. This has been our only reason for giving it, and we have done it only two or three times." Garber Drushal, "At Wooster we think it is silly to require the GRE of all speech majors." Herold Ross, "There did not seem to be sufficient virtue in the record examinations for all seniors; consequently, at DePauw we changed our policy and now offer it only for those students who are interested. I believe that there is now an examination

for speech majors, but somehow I have never gotten around to giving it. We no longer use the tests for our own evaluation processes, but now give it only to those students needing it for graduate study." Clarence Hunter: "I know of none of our majors in speech at Ohio Wesleyan who have taken the GRE. It is purely a matter of choice with each individual student." Hugo Hellman, "At Marquette we use the Miller Analogies Test as the general aptitude measure for the graduate school and this is the yardstick that is used for speech purposes." Here are eight institutions that make little, if any, use of the GRE.

Replies from three other institutions indicate that they use the GRE with more or less satisfactory results. Furman University, Redlands University and Grinnell College have found merit in the GRE. Sara Lowrey:

At Furman University we had 7 speech majors take the GRE in 1955-56. All majors in speech are required to take the examination. The results are in accord with my general estimates of them. My students need to do a little extra reading, especially in the line of speech correction, which, with the background we give, enables them to make high scores. Seven is a larger number than we usually have—Our liberal arts emphasis gives us few speech majors but a good number of minors and a satisfactory general enrollment.

William Umbach:

Our people at Redlands in speech have fared variously from year to year. In 1956 four majors in Speech and Drama rated 53, 74, 80 and 93 on the national percentile norms. In 1957, six rated 27, 40, 53, 53, 75, 99. Although the same test has been given also to group majors in drama and related areas, these people have usually not done too well because of the concentration of their courses in one aspect of the area rather than preparation broadly. As a result, the drama people will be taking the graduate record examination for entrance to the Yale School of Drama instead of the advanced test from now on. We have felt that the distribution of questions is not always the

most appropriate for our emphasis, but generally have found the relative position of our seniors on the advanced test to be a valuable check on the quality of our work as well as a guide to the areas in which added strength is needed.

William D. Vanderpool, Jr.:

We used the GRE at Grinnell for the first time last year. All of our graduating seniors were required to take it. By faculty regulation we were allowed to count the GRE for as little or as much as we desired in figuring our comprehensive examination grades. In general our five seniors fared rather well: our distribution, however was rather spread. Two of the people were in the upper 80th and 90th percentiles. One was in the upper 70th, and the other two were in the 45th to 50th. It happened that the best grade on the examination was made by a public speaking major as opposed to those majoring in correction or theatre, but this student had had extensive work also in both of these other areas. The two lowest students majored in theatre and correction.

Now let us compare the experience of these three institutions with the GRE with that of Denison. Note that strong areas of theatre and speech correction exist within the two Departments of Speech at Grinnell and Redlands, just as at the large universities. In fact, at Redlands University, it is possible for a student to get an M.A. in speech therapy. At Grinnell College a student can prepare herself to go directly to a school position as a speech therapist without further study. Is this emphasis upon one area of speech for an undergraduate major in speech contrary to the liberal arts ideal? Note also the relative small number of graduating majors in speech as compared with Denison: Furman 7, Redlands 4, Grinnell 5, Denison 20. Does the emphasis on specialization keep down the number of majors? Note also that at Redlands the GRE does not please the theatre people and they are being excused from it. How long will it be before the speech correction people at Redlands also object to the GRE?

Grinnell finds that the specialists in theatre and speech correction do not make an over-all satisfactory score as a rule. Grinnell's experience covers only one year. In the years to come will speech correction and theatre at Grinnell consider the GRE unrealistic in terms of what they are trying to do? Note that Redlands University is seemingly permitting the GRE to superimpose its pattern of what a speech department should be.

This leads one to ask this basic question:

What is the purpose of the GRE in speech? When we discover that even in those institutions that had a hand in formulating the examination, the undergraduate majors in speech are not required to take the GRE, we wonder if it was constructed for the average undergraduate. It is generally known that the personnel of The Ohio State University and Purdue University helped to formulate the examination. Franklin W. Knowler, when queried as to the use of the examination at his institution, replied, "We have not required this of our undergraduate majors, but we do require all of our entering graduate stu-

dents to take the examination." Alan H. Monroe replied to the same question, "Undergraduate majors are not required to take the GRE. It is required of applicants for Research Foundation Grants." Gail Densmore of the University of Michigan wrote, "Our speech majors do not take the GRE." In view of this use of the GRE by the universities, can it be that some of us in the small colleges have been trying to make the GRE do something it was never intended to do?

After using the Graduate Record Examination for several years with all our undergraduate majors in speech and after studying its use by institutions similar to Denison, we have reached these conclusions:

1. The GRE is only for students who intend to go to graduate schools.
2. It is not for the rank and file undergraduate in speech.
3. It should not be used to compare the strength or weakness of one Department of Speech with another.
4. It should not be used to force a Department of Speech to conform to a national pattern.

ISOCRATES OF ATHENS: FOREMOST SPEECH TEACHER OF THE ANCIENT WORLD

Goodwin F. Berquist, Jr.

IF a definitive history of speech education is ever written, Isocrates of Athens will merit an important place in it. As Russell Wagner long ago pointed out, "Perhaps no one of the great rhetoricians of the past has exerted so great an influence upon the succeeding ages of oratory; and perhaps none has been so much underestimated."¹ It is this peculiar lack of recognition which motivated this article. The purpose here is to present an analysis of the contributions of this great educator within the context of his time. In order to accomplish this purpose, it seems appropriate 1) to briefly discuss the nature of Greek education in the time of Isocrates; 2) to review the life of Isocrates himself; 3) to analyze his theories of education and culture; and 4) to bring into focus the unique features of the school which he established.

GREEK EDUCATION IN THE FIFTH CENTURY B.C.

To begin with, then, what was Greek education like in the time of Isocrates? The emergence of a fairly definite primary and secondary school system

occurred in Greece at about 450 B.C.² At the age of seven the child would be entrusted to the care of a music teacher or *citharist*. For the next four years he would study reading; writing, arithmetic (learning to count on the abacus); poetry, especially Homer; music (learning to play the Greek lyre or *cithar*); and gymnastics. At the age of eleven the student would proceed to the secondary stage of his education, training under a man of letters or *grammaticus*. Here he would be taught correctness of language, the meaning of words, proper accent and delivery, and the interpretation of poetry and historical literature.

At the age of fifteen the student would have completed his formal training. The only advanced work open to him in 450 B.C. was military and gymnastic training at the state-supported Ephebic College. Such advanced work involved serving garrison duty and preparation for athletic competition in the Olympic games.

But as the century progressed, major new discoveries were made in philosophy and science—discoveries which were to bring about a fundamental change in Greek education. Knowledge was being enlarged in many fields and so, too, was

In publishing this article, the Editor continues the practice of including selected treatises on great teachers of speech. The author, who is Instructor of Speech at Ohio State University, presented these materials as an address at the December, 1958, convention of the SAA. He received his Ph.D. degree from Pennsylvania State University in 1958.

¹ Russell Wagner, "The Rhetorical Theory of Isocrates," *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education*, VIII (November 1922), 323.

² The following description of Greek education is based primarily upon the accounts given in Percival R. Cole, *Studies in the History of Education* (Sydney, n.d.), pp. 41-43, and William A. Smith, *Ancient Education* (New York, 1955), pp. 132-141. Authorities differ on the exact age at which the Greek student advanced from one stage of his education to another; some cite a year earlier and some, a year later, than the ages given above.

the number of subjects a man must be familiar with if he were to be truly cultured. But who would teach this new learning? Who would accept the responsibility for educating the Greeks once they had completed formal instruction in music and literature? There were no established facilities to meet this growing demand for learning, yet somehow the demand must be met.

The gap was soon filled by itinerant professors called *sophists*. The early sophists were mostly non-Athenians who wandered about from place to place lecturing on what they had seen and heard. In essence they were one man universities who, for a time, fulfilled a widespread yearning for cultural improvement.

At this time in Greece there were three types of sophists. The *eristic* sophists were those teachers who spent their time debating mythical subjects of an ethical nature—a sort of sideshow pastime of little practical value. Next there were the rhetorical sophists, men who were by contrast overly practical. Since public speaking in Greece was mainly confined to court trials, this group became forensic technicians expert in the petty details of legal pleading. To them, speech was a bag of tricks whose mastery “guaranteed” favorable decisions. The third group of sophists were the philosophers, of whom Socrates was the first and most famous. The philosophers were intent upon discovering absolute virtue and justice. Their method was dialectical reasoning and their tool was the logical syllogism. Like the eristic sophists mentioned earlier, they, too, were highly impractical.

It was in this educational environment that Isocrates of Athens founded the first advanced school for liberal studies in Greek history. Before exam-

ining the unique features of this school, it seems desirable first to review briefly the life of Isocrates himself, and to learn something of his ideas of education and culture.

THE EARLY YEARS OF ISOCRATES

Isocrates was born in Athens in 436 B.C.³ His father was a wealthy flute manufacturer and therefore could provide him with an excellent education. After completing the traditional primary and secondary training in music and literature, Isocrates proceeded to study under most of the outstanding sophists of his time. He sat at the feet of Prodicus, the great grammarian; Tisias, the Sicilian expert in the rhetoric of probability; Protagoras, the so-called father of debate. But the most important of all of these teachers in their impact upon Isocrates' thinking was the florid orator, Gorgias, under whose tutelage Isocrates received an introduction into the beauties of an elevated speech style. One further teacher should be noted. It was in the recorded wisdom of the great philosopher, Socrates, that the young Athenian found the structure for his views on ethics and morality.

Isocrates completed his formal schooling determined to be respected for the wisdom of his opinions, and to exert a permanent, demonstrable effect upon the men and affairs about him. Faced with the choice of a career, he rejected oratory because of timidity and a weak voice. Philosophy he rejected because of its dream-like unreality. So in 392 B.C. he turned to teaching, a profession which gave him the leisure time to compose political tracts (widely read

³ For a more elaborate sketch of Isocrates' life, see George Norlin, *Isocrates* (London, 1928), I, introduction, and R. D. C. Robbins, "Isocrates," *Bibliotheca Sacra*, XXXV (July 1878), pp. 401-424, 593-618.

throughout Greece), and to influence directly the destiny of his native land by becoming the primary teacher of her leaders.

Isocrates established the first liberal arts institution in ancient Greece and the first school of speech in recorded history. (Plato was to open his Academy five years later, and Aristotle would begin to teach rhetoric some fifty years later). It is Isocrates' role as a speech teacher that is of primary interest here.

ISOKRATES' THEORIES OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE

There are five main features to Isocrates' approach to education.⁴ Any program of instruction Isocrates devised must first of all be *practical*. He had no use for those who seek knowledge unrelated to human conduct. Plato might spend a lifetime in a futile search for "perfect" knowledge, but Isocrates believed in working for attainable goals in an admittedly imperfect society.

Secondly, Isocrates' system had to be *moral*. By moral, Isocrates meant that action which all men acknowledge to be good. Hence the moral man is one who hits upon the "right" solution in a given situation. Isocrates firmly believed that education in "the wisdom of choice" was as essential an exercise for the soul as gymnastics was for the body.

Thirdly, Isocrates visualized a system of learning *patriotic* in its orientation. He was justly proud of the cultural achievements of the Greek people and especially those of his fellow Athenians. Consequently his set speeches, composed primarily as student exercises, and his political pamphlets repeatedly stress his belief in the need for a united Greece,

culturally and politically. Since Greek culture was the highest in the known world, Isocrates reasoned, it should be both appreciated and expanded.

Fourthly, Isocrates' system would have to be *broad and inter-disciplinary*. Unlike contemporary philosophers and rhetoricians, he did not believe he had a monopoly on learning. Alone among the teachers of his day, he respected the potential contributions of his rivals.

Finally, an Isocratean school would have to be characterized by *thoroughness*. He expected to do work of lasting merit himself and he intended to hold his students to the same high standard. It was an underlying precept of Isocrates' thinking that no education amounts to anything which does not involve hard work on the part of the student himself.

What Isocrates envisioned for his students then was a broad, practical introduction into Greek culture founded upon moral principles and thoroughness of preparation. His aim was to produce students who would engage, *with honor*, in practical life; in short, to create a ruling class of cultured gentlemen.

THE ISOCRATEAN SCHOOL OF SPEECH

But how were these objectives to be put into practice? What was the end product of Isocrates' thinking? What sort of education did this first school of speech actually make available to its students?

The core of Isocrates' program was public speaking.⁵ He believed that the art of speech was the best instrument for sharpening the faculty of judgment. To find the right expression demanded, and developed, a sensitivity to thought

⁴ For a thorough, scholarly treatment of this topic, the reader should consult Werner Jaeger, *Paideia: The Ideals of Greek Culture* (New York, 1944), esp. vol. III.

⁵ Perhaps the most lucid exposition of the role of speech in Isocrates' thinking on education is to be found in George Lamb, trans. *A History of Education in Antiquity*, by H. I. Marrou (New York, 1956), p. 196 *et passim*.

and meaning no other teaching method then in use produced. As Isocrates himself said, "the right word is a sure sign of good thinking."⁶ Taken simply, learning to speak properly meant learning to think properly. Thus the liberally educated man was conspicuous for his eloquence rather than for his wealth or valor. To Isocrates of Athens, speech was the sign of a sound education, *not* its objective.

In practice the Isocratean school functioned somewhat as follows. At the age of fifteen students would apply for admission. To be accepted for training, they had to demonstrate competence in science and mathematics, and ability in intellect, voice, and nerve. For the three to four year course, they were expected to pay a tuition fee of about \$200.00.⁷ The only real tie between the hundred students of the school in residence was the bond of a common teacher. The three essentials to learning were natural ability, training, and practical experience; those without ability or unwilling to work at self-development would fail.

The school curriculum began with introductory lectures on writing, speaking, and Greek culture. The only textbooks were the set speeches of the master. These together with student speeches and essays were criticized and revised. Students were expected to engage in practice speaking and exercises in listening—the latter to occur in the Athenian Assembly and the law courts. Isocrates also encouraged his pupils to go to others for learning, to seek knowledge "from all those who are noble in understanding."

Subjects taught included writing, public speaking, debate, classical prose and poetry, philosophy, mathematics,

and the new discipline of history. The school was literary in its emphasis upon style; psychological, in its stress upon the methods of affecting and influencing an audience; political, in its use of themes from contemporary Greek politics; and practical in its stress upon the professions open to young Athenians, and upon their civic duties in Greek society.

Novel features of the Isocratean system in the context of Greek education include the widespread use of imitation and models, and the master's insistence upon individual attention for each of his students. This latter innovation led rather naturally to the development of an intimate student-instructor relationship. At the end of their term of studies, students wept. Many kept up a lifelong correspondence with the master, and a few erected statues in honor of his friendship and wisdom.

The goal of this Isocratean system was the development of personal character, not the development of orators. A noble ideal certainly but was it ever achieved? Did this novel union of culture, education and speech have any lasting impact after Isocrates' career was terminated by death? The evidence in support of the affirmative is indeed remarkable. Students from all sections of the Greek world came to study under Isocrates. From the very ends of the earth, from Sicily in the west and the Greek colonies on the far-off Black Sea in the east, they came with but one purpose in mind. Graduates of Isocrates' school went on to become orators, philosophers, and statesmen. For over fifty years the school continued to flourish, attracting more students than those who attended all the other sophists and philosophers combined. In an oratorical contest opened to all Greece in 351 B.C., all the competi-

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 90.

⁷ Again authorities disagree on the precise figure. The fee cited here was that most often given in the sources examined by this writer.

tors to appear had received instruction from Isocrates.⁸

And over a longer period of time, Isocrates' influence was equally remarkable. Isocrates' name is quoted more than any other in Aristotle's *Rhetoric*. Cicero called him "the master of all

rhetoricians," and learned much about style from his writings. Quintilian described him as a most renowned teacher whose books are no better proof that he wrote well than his scholars, of his ability in teaching. To all these tributes to Isocrates of Athens one more should be added: FOREMOST SPEECH TEACHER OF THE ANCIENT WORLD.

⁸ Richard C. Jebb, *The Attic Orators From Antiphon to Isaeus* (London, 1893), II, 10-11.

A RATIONALE FOR THE TEACHING OF VOICE AND DICTION

Donald H. Ecroyd

STUDENTS of the history of speech education are in agreement that the teaching of rhetoric has always been *most* effective when the subject was approached as a whole art. It was because the Sophists separated form from content in their instruction that Plato has Socrates say in the "Gorgias" that rhetoric, as he knew it, was not an art at all, but merely a part of flattery. It was to repair the defects of the Sophistic handbooks that Aristotle wrote Books I and II of the *Rhetorica*. It was because Isocrates taught the whole art of rhetoric that he was undoubtedly the most influential teacher of classic Greece.

In a somewhat later day, looking back across his own successful speaking experience, Cicero considered rhetoric in a way that reflects the whole Greek tradition. Both Aristotle's emphasis upon content and the emphasis of the Sophists upon form made sense to him. Like Isocrates, then, he chose eclectically from the better points of each school of thought, and developed the five canons of oratory. Quintilian followed his lead, and detailed completely the Roman theory and methodology appropriate to each of the canons, in the effort to build the

Teachers of the basic course in speech often discuss, with considerable variety of opinion, the issues raised by the writer in this article concerning the place of instruction in voice and articulation in skills courses. His position may provoke some controversy among teachers of Public Speaking, Interpretation, or Voice and Diction. Besides being *Book Reviews* Editor of the *Speech Teacher*, he is Associate Professor of Speech at Michigan State University. His Ph.D. (1949) was completed at the State University of Iowa.

"good man," "skilled in speaking," "speaking truth."

As we know, however, the writers of the great English and American rhetorics prior to 1900 gave lip-service rather than full support to this concept of five inseparable canons. The elocutionists concentrated upon two of the five (style and delivery); the rhetoricians upon three (invention, disposition, and style). Almost no one dealt consistently with all five.

Yet it only stands to reason that neither the *rhetoric and belles lettres* approach, nor the elocutionary approach to the teaching of speech is really adequate. Since the days of A. E. Phillips, George Pierce Baker, William T. Foster, James A. Winans, and Charles C. Trueblood we have as a professional field rejected the "either-or" such a dichotomy of instruction makes necessary. Speech is the whole man, and therefore rhetoric must be the whole art.

When we accept the guidance of history we inescapably become advocates of the point of view that all modern instruction in rhetoric as it applies to public address must include systematic study of voice and diction. To do otherwise is to reject the examples of Isocrates, Cicero, Quintilian and others, and to accept once again the prevailing opinion of the rhetoricians and elocutionists of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

It is unfortunate that many otherwise alert teachers of speech have failed to recognize this. All too prevalent are such

generalized assumptions as the following:

1. The Voice and Diction course is necessary only for some of those who would study speech.
2. The Voice and Diction course is irrelevant to the development of good speech skill.
3. Voice and Diction *per se* cannot be taught: only voice science, phonetics, or oral interpretation.

There are other such assumptions which might also be stated, but these three are perhaps the most commonly argued. Let us therefore examine each of them and consider why it is basically a false assertion and why it cannot therefore be permitted to operate in the planning of a speech curriculum.

The position taken by the person who assumes that the Voice and Diction course is necessary only for *some* of those who would study speech is usually stated in one or the other of the two forms below:

1. The Voice and Diction course should be aimed only at those who have specific, demonstrable need for speech improvement.
2. The Voice and Diction course should be aimed only at those who will have professional need for superlative vocal skill.

Before we can sensibly consider why neither of these positions is defensible, we must first consider what are the educational goals of such a course as Voice and Diction. If we assume it to be the goal of all education to help the student develop his own potential understanding and skill to its maximum usefulness, the establishment of course goals for the teaching of Voice and Diction becomes fairly automatic:

1. To assist the student to develop an understanding of, and an appreciation for, the basic speech processes of breathing, phonation, articulation, and resonance, and
2. To assist the student to develop clearer evaluations of his own patterns of vocal usage, thus helping him develop good personal standards for speech, as well as techniques which will permit his con-

sistent "best use" of his own vocal mechanism.

The study of Voice and Diction, based upon such goals, has value for all students regardless of their level of proficiency upon entrance into the course, and regardless of their professional aim. For the group in the upper quartile whose speech is already good, improvement *per se* does not constitute a problem. The teacher's aims with such students will be focused mainly upon the first of the two goals above. The superior student needs understanding of what he does intuitively in order to take what he has mastered by accident or by imitation and turn it into a conscious, consistent, repeatable technique. Students whose speech ability falls within the middle quartiles will profit from a study of Voice and Diction from the point of view of both of the goals above, while for those in the lower quartile the aims of the teacher will tend to focus more strongly upon the second goal. The principle of individual differences insists that not only "the subject" but also "the student" must be taught.

Necessarily then, *all* speech students can and should profit from instruction and guided practice in the Voice and Diction area. The course should not be limited to the pre-professional student alone, nor should it be limited only to those for whom speech improvement is an obvious imperative. No modern teacher of speech would subscribe to the idea that skill alone was his aim in teaching. Yet by subscribing to such assumptions as the ones above, many modern teachers do seem to assume that skill alone should determine enrollment in a Voice and Diction course.

Instead, the course should be content-centered. New knowledge, and the establishment of new relationships among known ideas is the very essence

of education, when this knowledge represents potential action and is not permitted "inert," to use Whitehead's famous phrase. As the student learns his content materials, therefore, guided oral activities will supplement his learning, helping him see new and better ways to improve his own speech, or to keep it consistently "good." The mastery of the content is basic to his ability to do these things in himself, or to assist others to do them. Mastery of content, therefore, is focal. The grade of the course should probably depend at least 50-60 per cent upon this mastery. Without it the developing of any lasting skill is highly doubtful, except perhaps that pragmatic type which some students would probably develop anyway through their own powers of analysis. To assume otherwise is to admit that effective speakers *are* "born" rather than trained—which is a position that has been repeatedly proved to be false.

The proper orientation of the Voice and Diction course, then, is upon the *understanding* of skill, and not upon the skill alone. The methodology should not concentrate exclusively upon "How?", but should constantly stress also "Why?". When this sort of emphasis is given, Voice and Diction assumes its rightful place as an important aspect of the whole art of rhetoric, worthy of being taught to all, and capable of being studied with profit. The assumption that the Voice and Diction course is necessary only for some of those who would study speech, in other words, cannot be justified if the course is properly conceived and properly taught.

The second assumption is that the Voice and Diction course is irrelevant to the development of good speech skill. As a rule, the teacher holding this point of view agrees that the canon of *pronunciatio* should be included in the instruc-

tional pattern, but questions whether or not it is necessary to go into the matter in any detail. If he presents the materials of Voice and Diction at all, he does so hastily and superficially, while focusing upon the material of some other area of the field.

The danger of doing this is that the students still have no real *understanding* of what they do or why it works. Of course some speakers become good speakers without knowing these things—some good speakers have never had any formal training of any kind in speech. The point is not to be established from these exceptional instances, however. As teachers of speech we can all of us cite instances in which understanding *has* changed behavior, and in many of these cases we know that our own instruction has been instrumental in accomplishing this understanding. Without insight, change is unlikely; with instruction, insight is much more probable.

Speech, we believe, is an aspect of human behavior. Behavior, we believe, is caused. If we would change behavior with *certainty*, and in a way that would have *lasting* consequences, we must deal with causes and not with effects. Assume, for example, a teacher of interpretation, or the director of a play who says to a student, "Keep the tone round and full," and requires repeated efforts until the student finally "gets it." The student learns his lesson, but not in a way that will help him to "get it" in other situations, unless he is a skillful self-analyst. For the causes of his problem in the first place remain obscure to him. Casual mention here and there of certain principles, or the occasional drill-centered approach to a single problem cannot substitute for a thorough grounding in the materials and methods of Voice and Diction, and certainly will not insure similar results.

The third assumption is that Voice and Diction *per se* cannot be taught: only voice science, phonetics, or oral interpretation. This is, of course, unable to stand even rudimentary analysis. The teacher who holds this point of view is overlooking a basic psychological principle in terms of which all modern instruction is conceived: the whole is greater than the sum of its parts.

Of course the teacher of Voice and Diction has his pupils read aloud, and he assists them to develop greater skills of expressiveness, and greater understanding of the interrelationship of ideas and effective communication. Of course he has his pupils give short talks, stressing with them the relationship of rate, loudness, and articulation to understandability, and of expressiveness and quality to the "speech personality." Of course he will teach the phonetic symbols, and give simple transcription exercises, and teach some of the fundamental physiology of speech. He may even use role-playing assignments to demonstrate the relationship of the various vocal factors to "characterization" and impressions of mood and personality. And, of course, the highly trained specialists in these areas might do anyone of these things more thoroughly than it is done in the Voice and Diction class.

But to attack the teaching of Voice and Diction on these grounds is to admit complete ignorance of what the teacher of Voice and Diction is attempting to do. He does not teach oral interpretation, public speaking, phonetics, voice science, or acting. He simply uses experiences from these various disciplines in order to teach Voice and Diction.

What is taught in Voice and Diction is rightfully fundamental to what is taught in numerous other courses, and operates as a direct supplement to what

is taught in still others. But, to repeat the previous image in a slightly different form, the part is not the whole. There is, in other words, a difference of degree between what the teacher of Voice and Diction teaches about Phonetics, Acting, Oral Interpretation, Voice Science, and Public Speaking and what is taught in one of these other classes itself.

In addition to this difference of degree, there is a very real difference of kind. In the Voice and Diction class the purpose of teaching phonetics is not mastery of the I.P.A., but the beginnings of analytical sound-discrimination. The purpose of teaching certain aspects of voice science is not to give training in voice science, but to give understanding of vocal production. The important point of *distinction* that determines the difference between the two forms of instruction resides in the frame of reference within which they are taught.

Voice and Diction, then, is a vital and time-proven part of the whole art of rhetoric. It should be taught fully, and not as a passing adjunct to some other core of instruction. It should be conceived of as fundamental to many facets of the instruction of Speech Departments, and as supplemental to others—vital to all. It is instead the important fifth canon of oratory, and all teachers of Public Speaking should know its materials and its methods.

We cannot consider ourselves rhetoricians unless we know the full art of rhetoric. We cannot justify logically or historically any unwillingness to teach *pronunciatio*. And if it is to be taught, it should be taught well—it should be taught in detail, with the development of understanding rather than the development of skill as an immediate goal—and it should be taught to all.

BOOK REVIEWS

Donald H. Ecroyd, *Editor*

This column is usually devoted to the review of new books, and that is as it should be. There is, however, much to be learned from the study of rhetorical works of the past. Most of us have, therefore, at one time or another, made some study of Aristotle's *Rhetoric* (usually in Lane Cooper's translation), and of his *Poetics*. We may even have read Plato's *Phaedrus* and *Gorgias*, Cicero's *de Oratore*, and a few sections from Quintilian's *Institutes*. The writings of Blair, Whately, and Campbell are known to us, as are the contributions of various other writers—from excerpts, from commentaries, or perhaps from some study of the original. In other words, as teachers we generally recognize that there is a relationship between these classical works and what we teach today.

Most of us know something of our classical background as a field. By professional necessity, we also know something of our current literature. We know considerably less, however, about our more immediate past. The jump from Blair to Brigrance, from Campbell to Oliver, from Whately to Baird, is a long one; and a bowing acquaintance with the Ciceronian rephrasings of John Quincy Adams, or the more original writings of Benjamin Rush cannot alone fill in the gap.

The earliest modern textbooks intended for the use of American college students in public speaking classes as we know them, were written in the late 1800's and early 1900's. Unfortunately, these books go largely unstudied in graduate classes today. Frankly, this oversight seems to me to be a mistake, especially in view of the very real influence several of these books have had on our present methods of teaching speech.

Some of my own graduate students have been reading and reporting on books written between 1890 and 1920 during the past few weeks, and as I listen to them I find myself increasingly struck with the real importance of what some of these writers have to say. Their books, by and large, are no longer available from the publisher, but they can often be picked up very cheaply in used book stores. Many a modern teacher of speech, however, knowing

only the current or the ancient works, does not recognize an important "buy" when he sees it. Since the demand is slight, the prices tend to be low. (I paid only 10c for my copy of A. E. Phillips' *Effective Speaking*, for example!) Valuable additions to your professional library can be rather easily made, if you know what to look for and keep your eyes open.

I would like to call your attention especially to a sound half-dozen works, all published between 1890 and 1920, which still have much to say to us in our own day. This particular set of six are all in public address. Others doubtless might well be named, and probably should be, but these seem to me especially interesting, for various reasons. The first three are early works on argumentation, the second group deals with public speaking.

THE PRINCIPLES OF ARGUMENTATION.

By George Pierce Baker. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1895; pp. x+414.

ARGUMENTATION AND DEBATE. By Craven Laycock and Robert Leighton Scales. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1904; pp. x+361.

ARGUMENTATION AND DEBATING. By William Trufant Foster. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1908; pp. x+486.

George Pierce Baker is famed for his teaching at Harvard and at Yale. Thomas Wolfe, Eugene O'Neill, and many others well-known to American literature were among his pupils. His book is severely classical in its conception, based upon the careful study of inference and evidence. Baker states for us the conviction-persuasion dichotomy which still influences our thinking and teaching despite its psychological indefensibility in our own day. Conviction aims at the securing of belief, Baker held, and requires intellectual proofs: persuasion aims at action, requiring prior conviction plus motivation. Thus, for him, persuasion is a part of argumentation, rather than argumentation becoming the "logical part" of persuasion as is so often true today.

W. T. Foster's lucid discussions of Analyzing the Proposition (Second Chapter), Fallacies (Seventh Chapter), and Refuting Opposing Arguments: Special Methods (Eighth Chapter) are still among the most helpful ever written on these subjects. Baker's examples came mainly from the great English writers, but Foster turned to the great legal and legislative speeches of England and America for his material.

Laycock and Scales, like both Baker and Foster, assume argumentation to be a practical art. As they state in their Preface, "... it is realized that argumentative skill does not belong exclusively to any one profession or class of men." Like the others, it is also based on the conviction-persuasion dichotomy, and assumes that successful argumentation must include elements of both.

The teacher of debate will find real food for thought and a new clarity of understanding of briefing from studying these works with care. He will also gain a new respect for reasoning and for the role of evidence in proof. In comparison with the obvious rigor of these works, so much that we do today pales to superficiality. It is well to pause, sobered with the analytical muscle-building these older books enforce, and consider the level of our own more current efforts. If for no other reason, these books are worth our study.

EFFECTIVE SPEAKING. By A. E. Phillips. Chicago: The Newton Company, 1908; pp. 314.

PUBLIC SPEAKING. By James A. Winans. New York: The Century Company, 1915; pp. xv+526 (several revisions, including *Speech-Making*).

THE FUNDAMENTALS OF SPEECH. By Charles Henry Woolbert. New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1920; pp. 383 (in revised editions also).

All three of these famous books show the influence of the field of psychology upon the body of classical principles which were (and are) the core of rhetoric. It is interesting to observe the directions this influence took.

Phillips, for example, made a careful analysis of the dynamics of human action, and concluded in a justly famous (and still widely quoted) chapter that much of what we do can be explained in terms of what he called "the seven impelling motives." (Chapter V, Action

and the Impelling Motives) These he listed as being self-preservation, property, power, reputation, the affections, the sentiments, and the tastes. Although we have some doubts as to the psychological derivation of these motives, we have not yet set them aside as teachable classifications of an important part of the basis of human desire and action.

Winans emphasizes speech-making as expanded conversation in his famed Chapter II, *Conversing with an Audience*. His practical, common-sense approach to Attention and Interest (Chapter VI), and to Persuasion (Chapters VIII and IX), have made the book of unquestioned importance in the history and development of rhetorical theory. As a brief example of the inherent excellence of the work, and of its contemporary quality, read the section on suggestion (pp. 222-244), for example. It is from Winans that we get such frequently used phrases as "a full realization of the content of your words as you utter them," and "a lively sense of communication." His presentation of Attention and of Persuasion are heavily based on the writings of James, with additional materials from Pillsbury, Thorndyke, Hollingworth, and Ross, among others—the foremost and ablest psychologists and sociologists of his day.

Woolbert applies Behaviorism to speech, discussing rhetoric in the light of the stimulus-response theory of human behavior. Woolbert also knew his James and his Thorndyke, as well as his Jung and his Pavlov. "What controls attention is what controls response," he wrote, and his book is addressed to the vital role of the spoken word in a democratic state. Woolbert emphasizes the coordination of mind and body and voice, thus attacking the two-pronged approach to the teaching of speech through the study of rhetoric and elocution as separable units.

Phillips' impelling motives, Winans' conversational quality (not conversational style!), and Woolbert's application of the stimulus-response theory to speech are all a part of our current teaching. Modern best-sellers among our public speaking texts owe much to these men. All of us can study them with profit.

EFFECTIVE SPEECH NOTEBOOK (rev. edition). By Robert T. Oliver, Virgil Anderson, T. Earle Johnson, Earl W. Wells, and Agnes Allardyce. Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1958; pp. 40. \$1.50.

This notebook consists of six types of forms:

A case study form called a Speech Inventory, a set of ten blanks for form and content speech outlines, ten rating scales for teacher evaluation of student speeches, a form for student review of his ratings, three forms for reporting on speeches, and six forms for reporting consideration of five speech topics in each of six categories. Each of the types of forms is preceded by brief directions.

The major substance of each of the forms is reasonably precise and could be supported by documentation. Suggested criteria for evaluating a speech depart considerably from the criteria suggested in the rating scales. There is little justification for presenting the material in two parts. Although the materials are not unique, the contributions of the publication are to be found in its provision for a uniform accumulative record, its simplicity, and its availability

FRANKLIN H. KNOWER
Ohio State University

IMPROVING CHILDREN'S SPEECH. By Jack W. Birch and Jack Matthews with the assistance of Ernest Burgi. Cincinnati: Public School Publishing Company, 1958; pp. vi+46. \$1.00.

As part of a series entitled "Teaching Exceptional Children in Every Classroom," this booklet was written to aid teachers who have not had special training in speech therapy to prevent and to correct disorders in their pupils' speech through a planned program of speech improvement. Definitions of defective speech and the various types of speech problems are given with the warning that children should not be evaluated as "defective in speech" when they are developing in the natural sequence of maturation. Primarily dealt with is the problem of articulation, although delayed speech, hearing loss, voice disorders, foreign dialect, and stuttering are discussed.

Each chapter presents appropriate goals in speech improvement for specified grade levels. A listing of sounds according to the age at which children tend to use them correctly should be helpful. Excellent check lists enable teachers to evaluate their basic attitude, as well as their implementation of their speech improvement program.

This reviewer was pleased to see stress given the teacher's speech as a model, the need for teachers to observe and record information concerning the speech skills of their pupils, and the need for teachers to plan speech improvement activities as an integrated part of the day's program.

The authors recommend that speech improvement, as carried on by teachers in the lower grades through the ninth grade, be limited to activities involving the whole class. Also stressed is the need for the speech handicapped child to experience recognition by his classmates for successfully completing some activity.

The authors recognize that the procedures recommended will not be sufficient to satisfy the needs of some children, and that these children will require the professional services of the speech therapist, psychologist, etc.

It is felt that this booklet offers much valuable information for teachers who are interested in helping to bring about the improvement of their pupils' speech. It should be most useful in college teacher preparation courses.

LORETTA G. BROWN
Anniston City Schools (Ala.)

HOW TO HOLD A BETTER MEETING. By Frank Snell. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1958; pp. vii+148. \$2.25.

This book is not designed for classroom teaching although teachers of conferences and institutes are invited to use it. Rather, it is intended for business men who experience unnecessarily long and tedious meetings. Accordingly, there is an attempt made to provide "direction signs" which lay the foundation for "direct talk" in the business meeting. There is no effort to discuss "theory," but many principles are clearly and understandingly presented.

The author strives to lead his busy executive through somewhat progressive stages of the meeting—from a brief discussion of the necessity of talking together to the final note on diplomacy. This arrangement of the material is logical and helpful to the executive. Some worthwhile reasons for holding meetings in a business are listed early in the book. The four types of business meetings selected for discussion, i.e. the report meeting, the decision-making meeting, the creative or development meeting, and the learning or training meetings are excellent choices.

The various suggestions offered for problems arising in meetings for the most part should be of benefit to a business man. In some instances the suggestions are not always fully developed. For example, in the last chapter, wherein the case of handling the difficult member is mentioned, the author merely contends that good leadership would preclude such a situation. In the chapter on "Location and Seating for the Working Conference" one won-

ders just how Mr. Snell would personally go about breaking up departmental cliques before a meeting. The drawings by Rupert Witalis are of interest, but certain individuals deplore this kind of illustrative work. This reviewer feels that the sketches for the decision-making and the creative or development meetings were not as meaningful as they might have been.

More substance could have been added in this book. How to make a report was handled too lightly. Nothing was said about its organization or about attempting to be objective in its presentation. No principles were offered relative to visual aids, though it was suggested that they be used in meetings. More information pertaining to listening could have been included. Reference material was conspicuously absent.

There was some repetitious matter obvious to this writer as, for example, the constant reference to the time factor in meetings. This may possibly have been for emphasis or may have been unavoidable. Nevertheless, repetitions of this nature persist throughout the book. Some ambiguous statements were made as: "talking is a natural function" and "no one seems to know how to make a meeting work better." The chapter on "The Meeting and Your Company" should either have been omitted or developed into a more significant body of knowledge. Two inconsistencies were noted: On page two Mr. Snell leaves the impression that ninety percent of each working day is carried on orally, but then on page seven he uses fifty percent as his estimate. On page fifty-one he warns against "equating" ideas of democracy and equality into the business meeting and says that discussion is ordinarily curtailed in the usual meeting. But on page eighty-eight he goes into considerable detail to encourage *all* to participate freely in working for a decision.

The simplicity and clarity of the writing will be welcomed by the average executive. Many practical ideas are offered for the improvement of meetings. The suggestions to use humor to ease tension, to employ frequent summaries and to organize the meeting are familiar concepts to us all. Much emphasis is placed upon the leader, much less time is devoted to the participants.

Despite the shortcomings listed in this review, this book would be of value to the executive who *needs* to know the fundamentals of conducting better meetings.

MILTON J. WIKSELL
Michigan State University

CURRICULUM GUIDES: Interpretation—25 pp.; Discussion-Debate—15 pp.; Drama—9 pp.; Intermediate School—10 pp.; Basic Speech—13 pp. Published by the Michigan Speech Association. May be purchased through Mr. Moyne L. Cubbage, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. 35c each.

The five Speech Curriculum Guides, mostly for high schools, prepared by committees of the Michigan Speech Association, are the most interesting and stimulating material on speech curricula I have seen in a long time. They are worthy of careful study by all speech teachers, regardless of their teaching level. All of them are beautifully worked out and will be a real inspiration to the inexperienced teacher as well as the veteran teacher. Particularly effective to me are the booklets on Interpretation, Discussion-Debate, and Intermediate School. However, the Basic Speech and Drama Guides are also well worthy of careful study. All are in outline form with occasional explanations and interesting forewords. The general form that is used is as follows: point of view or foreword, objectives—both general and specific, procedures, units of study, learning experiences or activities, audio-visual material, and a bibliography. All five are simply written, extremely practical, and represent the thought and labor of outstanding speech specialists from the University and High School. They fill a real need in the high school field. One dollar and seventy-five cents for the five speech guides would be the best investment a high school speech teacher could make, or any other speech or English teacher for that matter.

The *Basic Speech Guide* begins by stating that the "primary purpose is to refine the student's speech skills so that he may meet everyday speech situations with ease and understanding." The guide is divided into ten units: Orientation, Conversation, Listening, Discussion, Preparing to Speak, Our Bodies Speak, Gathering Information, Voice, Parliamentary Procedure and Critical Thinking. This is a guide, but it leans a little too much to the public speaking side. Story telling is mentioned under Voice, and Interpretation is almost completely omitted. Some of the work such as Gathering Information would be a repetition of other school work, and could be replaced with some interpretative work. With this exception it is an excellent and stimulating guide.

The *Discussion-Debate Guide* is an excellent outline with a few practical suggestions in explanation of the outline. Particularly good are the "Debaters Code" and the "Ethical Principles of Debate." The objectives are excellent. The "learning experiences" are most helpful.

Interpretation Guide. The "Philosophy Underlying the Study of Oral Interpretation" is worth studying for itself, unpretentious and inspiring. The general goals and specific objectives are as excellent for English as well as speech teachers. The course outline is skillful and logically planned. The material selected for use is most valuable. The three units of work—Prose Narration, Poetry Reading, and Choral Reading are inspiring. "Suggested Sources of Material" and "Suggested Recordings" will be of value to experienced as well as inexperienced teachers.

Speech for Intermediate School is prepared as "(1) a guide for use of all intermediate teachers to help them improve the pupil's speech concurrently with instruction in other subjects, (2) a speech course to be taught for one semester by a speech teacher." (The first of these is a plan to be hoped for! How do you get them to do it?) There are eleven units of work suggested. Particularly interesting are "Voices Tell More Than Words" and "The Words We Use." It is a well rounded guide with many useful suggestions, and good material suggested. It, too, is an inspiring booklet.

Drama Guide is a superior outline. It lists seven "General Objectives" and sixteen "Specific Objectives." There are eight divisions such as, "History of the Drama and the Theatre," "Acting," "Play Structure," etc. which furnish ample material for several courses. In fact, almost any one division with the activities suggested would make a heavy one semester course for high school. The outline would suggest a college course rather than a high school course. It is well worked out and with the proper simplification it would make a highly useful guide for either the experienced or the inexperienced teacher.

To repeat, the five guides are a magnificent contribution to the field of speech education. The Michigan Speech Association is to be congratulated.

ROSE B. JOHNSON
Woodlawn High School
Birmingham, Alabama

THE TEACHING OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

By Wilbert Pronovost with Louise Kingman.
New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1959.
pp. v+338. \$4.50.

Dr. Pronovost states that his book is intended to be a "guide for teachers in service, as well as a textbook for courses in language arts and speech." It is clearly meant to be a methods book; the authors have effected a balance between the objectives, materials, methods, and evaluations of instruction in an oral language arts program.

The chapters of the book are not necessarily sequential; the organization provides for referential reading as well as general study. The first chapter relates primarily the purposes of teaching speaking and listening, providing for an organized continuity of instruction, integrating the language arts skills, and correlating speaking and listening with other subject areas. The following chapters describe procedures for teaching talks, group discussion, voice, articulation, oral reading and choral speaking, and dramatic activities. Chapter II regarding talks, provides the reader with two helpful teacher's evaluation charts, one each for the primary grades and the intermediate grades. Similar evaluation charts for the other chapters would have been valuable.

The major portion of the volume is devoted to more than thirty "illustrative lessons" in which the authors afford the reader with objectives, materials, procedures, and evaluations of typical instructional units. Approximately two-thirds of the model lessons provide for speaking and listening emphasis in areas outside language arts. Almost half of the lessons describe lessons in grades five and six; only one of the models specifically describes the kindergarten.

Too often, speaking and listening, especially listening, are taught as isolated skills with little regard for *what* is to be spoken or heard; this reviewer is pleased to note the correlation of oral language with the content of social studies, science, music, arithmetic, health and safety, and outdoor education. However, the overloading of illustrative units for grades five and six and the minimal attention to the kindergarten and first grade readiness programs, where speaking and listening are basic to learning the alphabetic skills, are indeed distressing.

At the end of Chapter I, the authors have stated that the dialogues in the lessons are simulated. Readers are cautioned again that

the lessons are illustrative, and that children, being children, undoubtedly will not always react according to the plan of the units. In some dialogues children seem to respond in a manner quite advanced for the noted grade level; and, in the evaluations of study, the children seem to have learned the intended unit objectives in a very short time. The classroom teacher should be prepared for deviations in actual practice. If the dialogues may be studied with the attitude that "this is *one* way," rather than "this is *the* way," the illustrative lessons can be quite beneficial in pre-planning speaking and listening activities.

In the final chapter, the authors have emphasized the importance of the teacher's role in recognizing and understanding the complex needs of elementary children with language difficulties, creating a classroom climate in which handicapped children can feel free to communicate without tension, and supporting the work of the speech therapist, if one is available. Specific suggestions are listed from which the teacher may select and adapt some procedures for "reacting" to the child who stutters; these helps are equally important to children with other types of speech difficulties and to children who speak acceptably. They are surprisingly similar to the "golden rules" for good educational procedure.

The Teaching of Speaking and Listening in the Elementary School provides a fine starting place to both students and in-service teachers, particularly those quite new to the classroom, for promoting oral language instruction to elementary children. The experienced teacher, rich with creative ideas and sensitivity in

teaching, will enrich the illustrative lessons with individualized touches to meet the communicative needs of children.

JAMES D. WHITE
Speech Supervisor
Farmingdale Public Schools,
New York

A series of sixteen booklets. National I-Spy Ranger Association. 33 West 42nd Street, New York 36, New York, paperbound, 15c each.

I have found these small 3"x5" booklets very useful in speech and hearing work. They are used by upper grade and junior high children (with badge and code, etc.) as a leisure time club activity. I have found them helpful in working with aphasics, hard-of-hearing children, and children who need help in organizing material and in developing language fluency. They are graphic (black and white) and encyclopedic. Following are some of the subjects covered: sports, railroads, airplanes, trees, music, dogs, uniforms, wheels, etc. The movement started in England and has been sponsored in the USA by *Scholastic Magazine*.

This does not carry the dignity of a book review, but it is good material and folks around here who've been told about it find it very helpful. I can put one of these booklets in the hands of a high school stutterer and help him launch into a well organized talk on railroads by merely showing page after page of the pictures and filling in with his own knowledge.

CLARA B. WEIR
Speech and Hearing Therapist
Hartford, Connecticut

IN THE PERIODICALS

Erik Walz, *Editor*

Assisted by: Max Nelson

EDUCATION

MONES, LEON. "The Educational Leader of the Future," *The American School Board Journal*, Vol. 138, No. 5 (May, 1959), 19-20.

The public is for the most part aware of the need for teachers but they do not realize the critical problem of selecting school executives. According to the author the educational leader's "greatest asset is the capacity to stimulate maximum effort on the part of his staff . . . whose distinguishing characteristic is the insight to help in human nature's drive for educational growth."

DAVISON, HUGH. "Elements of Research," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (April, 1959), 13-14.

The author, Professor of Education at Penn State, "illustrates the elements of research methodology as they may be used by students of speech." Four problems are examined and a general framework consisting of seven basic steps in scientific research considered.

MARGARY, JAMES F. "The Psychologist Views School Language Activities," *The Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 59, No. 5 (February, 1959), 282-285.

"The language teacher in the elementary school has a box seat for viewing individual differences in children as they express themselves in classroom language activities—talking, listening, reading, and writing." The author investigates each area. The first area, "talking," should be of special interest to the speech teacher. Articulation, tone, speaking with assurance or hesitation, fear of speaking, content, speech patterns, and vocabulary are discussed.

CHESKIN, LOUIS. "Subliminal Research—Implications for Persuasion," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (April, 1959), 19-21.

The article reveals that communication is not all on a conscious level. Examples and the implications of subliminal perception in the

distribution of consumer goods are examined by the author.

STRICKLAND, RUTH G. "Building and Expanding Worthwhile Interests," *Education*, Vol. 79, No. 8 (April, 1959), 460-464.

Teachers have the responsibility of building worthwhile interests in children. The building of these interests in school is best accomplished by those teachers who have wide and varied interests and who are willing to share them with their pupils. Science, social studies, language, literature, reading, writing, art, music, dramatic interpretation and dance are areas examined.

BOARDMAN, GORDON C. "Balance in Elementary and Secondary Education," *The Educational Forum*, Vol. XXIII, No. 4 (May, 1959), 407-410.

Because the theory and practice of education is complex, a balance in education is difficult to attain. The author advises that educators, "try to keep in mind three variables in the school curriculum: social demands, child development and our cultural heritage."

FISHER, HELEN. "Expectations for Leadership," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. XVI, No. 8 (May, 1959), 503-525.

After three years working with teachers as a supervisor, the author planned a questionnaire and an evaluation to learn something about the kind of leadership expected from supervision. This questionnaire study answers some of the problems of leadership and supervision.

TODD, JOAN M. "An Experiment in Teacher Training," *Social Education*, Vol. XXIII, No. 5 (May, 1959), 213-234.

An interesting experiment in teacher training is presented by the author. It deals specifically in the area of the social studies. According to the writer "teachers best trained in the various subject matter fields—are the best

persons to teach the methods of their individual subject."

WARREN, STAFFORD L. "Educational Demands for a Profession," *Junior College Journal*, Vol. XXIX, No. 9 (May, 1959), 533-538.

The writer traces the educational demands for a profession from the primary and secondary school level to college. Five major "hurdles" namely, scholastic achievement, outside activities, Aptitude Test, personal reputation and an interview are discussed.

A Hofstra College Study Committee. "A Proposal for the Establishment of an Experimental College," *Liberal Education*, Vol. XLV, No. II (May, 1959), 205-215.

Higher education in America is going through a period of transition and trends seem to indicate that colleges will become commuting colleges rather than residential ones. According to this report "bold and imaginative experimentation is needed to design a college with a new approach and a new style." The Experimental College, as outlined in this article, is "planned as a no-nonsense kind of place, will gear itself to the commuting 'good-average' student and will emphasize independent study."

HECHINGER, FRED M. "Five Basic Problems of Education," *The Education Digest*, Vol. XXIV, No. 9 (May, 1959), 12-15.

The writer presents five of the most immediate problems in education today. Raising the standards of education, obtaining better teachers, emphasizing science or the liberal arts, admission of students, financing are the problems covered with some solutions recommended by the experts.

SPEECH CORRECTION

SKATVEDT, MARIT. "Cerebral Palsy; a Clinical Study of 370 Cases," *Acta Paediatrica*, Volume 46, Suppl. III (July, 1958).

This study emanated from the Children's Clinic, University Hospital (Rikshospitalet), Oslo, Norway. The areas treated were as follows: History of the Study of Cerebral Palsy, Survey of the Author's Material, Etiological Considerations, Clinical Considerations, Pathologic Anatomy and Therapeutic Possibilities. Special attention was given to the areas of pneumoencephalographic material and electroencephalography. Six autopsies were included in this study.

BRIESS, F. BERTRAM. "Voice Therapy," *A.M.A. Archives of Otolaryngology*, Volume 69, Number 1 (Jan., 1959), 61-69.

This article describes the specific therapeutic approach used for the restoration of normal laryngeal muscle balance, as currently used in the Department of Otolaryngology at the State University of New York, Upstate Medical Center at Syracuse.

Voice therapy divides itself into four distinct but interrelated phases:

1. The first, or Dehabiting Phase, during which voice habits indicative of abuse are identified and corrected.

2. The Muscle Retraining Phase during which correction takes place.

3 and 4. Widening of safety margin, by training all muscles to endure far more than the untrained voice can possibly withstand and education of the patient to feel the laryngeal sensations associated with beginning muscle imbalance and to know how to accomplish immediate correction.

HEDGECOCK, L. D. "Audiologic Aspects of Rehabilitation of the Deaf," *American Annals of the Deaf*, Volume 103, Number 2 (March, 1958), 210-214.

This article presents a detailed outline of audiologic information for counselors of the deaf. It considers seven different areas. These are as follows: 1, Structure and function of the ear; 2, physical characteristics of sound; 3, measurement of hearing; 4, evaluation of hearing aids; 5, speech reading; 6, auditory training; 7, speech training.

This article is one of many presented at the Institute on Personal, Social and Vocational Adjustment to Total Deafness at the New York School for the Deaf, White Plains, N. Y., October 21-25, 1957.

LEITH, WM. R. and STEER, M. D. "Comparison of Judged Speech Characteristics of Athetoids and Spastics," *Cerebral Palsy Review*, Volume 19, Number 1 (January-February, 1958), 15-20.

A survey of the literature concerning cerebral palsy indicates that there have been numerous attempts to describe and differentiate the associated speech characteristics. This investigation was concerned with a comparison of the judged speech of athetoids and spastics.

Within the limitations of the design of this experiment, including the scale employed and

the sample used, the following were some of the conclusions reached:

1. With respect to deviation from the normal for the aspects of speech considered, neither group, athetoid or spastic, is judged as being significantly different from the other.

2. No differences exist between the athetoid and spastic groups with regard to descriptions of deviations of rate (speed), rate (flow of speech), pitch (level), loudness (level), loudness (characteristics) and articulation.

3. More athetoids than spastics are judged to the "uncontrolled variability" of pitch (characteristics).

GOODSTEIN, LEONARD D. "Functional Speech Disorders and Personality: A Survey of the Research," *Journal of Speech and Hearing Research*, Volume 1, Number 4 (Dec., 1958), 359-376.

This article is an attempt to summarize and evaluate investigations in which the personality and adjustment of individuals with functional speech disorders and their parents were measured and some comparison with a control group was made.

In each of four areas, articulation disorders, delayed speech, voice disorders and stuttering, the published literature of the past 25 years was categorized as stated above. When appropriate, the methodological and conceptual limitations of the studies were pointed out and suggestions for additional research made. In general, there were few generalizations suggested.

FRISINA, D. ROBERT. "Basic Considerations in Auditory Training," *American Annals of the Deaf*, Volume 103, Number 3 (May, 1958), 459-466.

The intact auditory system was reviewed briefly. Some basic questions regarding the neurophysiology of hearing were raised with respect to various anatomical levels of hearing impairment. The concept of a dynamic, constantly shifting threshold of hearing was discussed. Validity and reliability in auditory testing were mentioned. Finally, some monaural-binaural comparisons were introduced.

PUBLIC SPEAKING—DISCUSSION—DEBATE

LEBO, JOSEPH R. "Are You Silent?" *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 1 (February, 1959), 3-4.

The author points out that silence together with talking and listening make up the three

sides of a conversational triangle. The advantages and disadvantages for silence are discussed. "If difficulties in understanding are to be avoided or lessened, good communication," according to the writer, "is essential for both the talker and listener. Each must do his or her part."

BARBARA, DOMINICK A. "The Art of Listening," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 1 (February, 1959), 5-7.

This article is an excerpt from Dr. Barbara's book "The Art of Listening." The author states that listening is an art which requires "alert and active participation" by the listener. To master this technique, discipline, concentration, comprehension, alertness of mind and curiosity are necessary requisites.

MURPHY, JACK W. "A Speech Teacher Coaches Miss Missouri," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 1 (February, 1959), 11-13.

The author, a professor of Speech at the University of Kansas City, gives a brief account of a unique and interesting challenge—that of coaching Miss Kansas City to the Miss Missouri title and on to the Miss America contest in Atlantic City. The author's program fell into four basic categories (a) Development of outgoing personality with intellectual substances (b) appearance (c) dancing talents (d) poise and confidence.

HENNESSEY, JOSEPH B. JR. "A Theory of Memory As Applied to Speech," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 1 (February, 1959), 15-19.

The writer attempts to answer the question "What is memory?" Some rules for memory are quoted together with a summary of three points of emphasis which various systems have in common. In the last section of this article the author relates the points of memorization to the speaking situation.

SCHMIDT, RALPH N. "Commencement Speaker," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 1 (February, 1959), 33-35.

According to the author the purpose of a commencement speech is to inspire a graduating class. Six practical suggestions are presented to help a person become the perfect commencement speaker.

CARLSON, ERIC W. "An Experiment in Alumni Group Discussion," *Adult Education*, Vol. IX, No. 3 (Spring, 1959), 173-175.

This article is an account of a "new venture in ideas initiated by a small group of Boston

University alumni. They gather once a month for an uncommon reason: they have made a big discovery that what they call a 'group search for values' can be an exciting experience."

JULEUS, NELS. "The Fabulous 'For Instance,'" *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (April, 1959), 3-5.

The author advocates the use of the fable in speeches to instruct, entertain, or persuade. He believes that it can be an effective "attention getter, an illustration for a supporting idea or a clincher at the end of an address."

SCHMIDT, RALPH N. "Common Speech Practices That Annoy Audiences," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (April, 1959), 7-8.

Speakers would do well to follow the advice of this particular article if they wish to be an effective speaker and avoid irritating an intelligent audience. Falsifying, stating the title of a speech, changing the topic and greeting everyone on the platform are to be avoided.

PARRY, DAVID M. "The Football Coach as a Speaker," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (April, 1959), 9-10.

The author discusses the importance of speech communication to a football coach. Two general conclusions: (1) Effective speech is important to successful coaching and (2) Men entering the field should study, develop and practice good speech.

BEHL, WILLIAM A. "Speech for the Secretary," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (April, 1959), 11-12.

Five prerequisites in speech communication are vitally important for the successful secretary, namely: (1) Ideas worth listening to (2) Interest and understanding of people (3) Diction (4) Poise, confidence (5) Good Listener and (6) Choice of language.

BUEHLER, E. C. "Tapping The Sub-Conscious Mind," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (April, 1959), 23-24.

A practical suggestion for gaining confidence, fluency, and spontaneity in the speech class is suggested by the author. The method and topics used are described together with a three point formula to help the reticent student.

ORAL INTERPRETATION

KENDRICK, DOLORES T. "On Teaching the Writing of Poetry," *The English Journal*, Vol. XLVIII, No. 5 (May, 1959), 266-268.

The author raises three questions which in her opinion will help the young student understand poetry. She discusses first the most effective method for the student to experience poetry, then briefly explains what language words are in poetry and how the student can know and grasp them.

COOK, REGINALD L. "The Stand of Robert Frost Early and Late," *The English Journal*, Vol. XLVIII, No. 5 (May, 1959), 233-241.

This is a useful article for those who enjoy interpreting the poems of Robert Frost. Subject matter, view point, method and tone are examined by the author.

FIRARI, HARVEY. "Out of Chaos—Learning," *The English Journal*, Vol. XLVIII, No. 5 (May, 1959), 262-278.

This article explains how the author through the use of negative psychology taught poetry to his class at Culver Military Academy. He states that through this device he tested his theory that "since poetry is verbalized emotion, the beginning of an appreciation of poems is best developed in an atmosphere charged with emotion."

HAUN, RUTH. "Communicative Reading," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 2 (April, 1959), 31-32.

According to the introductory statement, the author "presents the fruit of her experience on how to teach students to read poetry with genuine sensitivity and communicative effectiveness."

DRAMATICS

WISE, ROBERT O. "So You Are Overworked," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXX, No. 4 (January, 1959), 11.

This article is written to help the overworked high school director reduce the amount of time and magnitude of his job. Ten important areas are investigated and suggestions made. The author emphasizes the fact that such a program is "to aid the major aim of secondary school theatre—to give the student training and instruction in theatre, leadership and living."

TRUMBO, CHARLES R. and POLLYANN. "Writing the Pageant," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXX, No. 4 (January, 1959), 12.

In a previous article, two main types of pageants, the social and historical, were explained. The authors now discuss briefly the

five different classifications of pageantry under the two main types, namely: Panoramic, dramatic, epic, pageant-drama, dramatic festival and lyrical. Writing of the pageant involves research, an outline, episode directors, dialogue and a descriptive narration.

DUSENBURY, DELWIN B. "The Sophisticate from Indiana: Cole Porter," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXX, No. 4 (January, 1959), 14.

The author first gives a "brief backward glance" on the team of writers before Cole Porter, in order to complete the picture of American Musical Theatre of the 1920's. The remainder of the article discusses the works of Porter who brought a "unique and highly entertaining form" to the American stage.

REED, FRIEDA E. "Theatre for Children," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXX, No. 4 (January, 1959), 22.

For those interested in developing Children's Theatre, this article has several suggestions. The writer has experimented for the past five years in dance pantomime as an added feature to Children's Theatre. It is the author's belief that dance pantomime along with the Children's Play provides variety and creativity for the students.

KRUEGER, JAMES F. "I'm going to Broadway. . . ." *Dramatics*, Vol. XXX, No. 5 (February, 1959), 14.

Here is an excellent warning to all young students just out of high school who plan a dramatic career. Immediately their first thought is to attend a professional theatre school in New York. It is the opinion of the author that at this time in life, colleges are better equipped to develop personality, individuality and culture. A college background will give the student a greater capacity for acting and the degree will also help him into another profession if desired.

TRUMBO, CHARLES R. and POLLYANN. "Organizing the Pageant," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXX, No. 5 (February, 1959), 15.

The first step in organizing the pageant is to elect or appoint a pageant chairman. Eight other important officers with their committees will also be needed for a successful organization. The authors explain briefly what they are and the functions of each one.

REED, FRIEDA E. "Theatre for Children," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXX, No. 5 (February, 1959), 22.

The author attempts to answer the question: "How do you choose a Children's Play?" She suggests: "(1) It should entertain the children, and (2) It should give them permanent values." Ten plays are discussed by the writer. She hopes that this basic list might be the start of a successful Children's Theatre.

WRITHEY, J. A. "Onstage Color," *Players Magazine*, Vol. 35, No. 8 (May, 1959), 177-179.

A brief discussion on Color as Symbol, The Color of Objects, Color Relations and Color as Tonality may prove useful to those interested in technical theatre.

MILLER, JAMES H. "How We Licked Byrd High," *Players Magazine*, Vol. 35, No. 8 (May, 1959), 179-180.

The problem of adapting a small high school stage for the mounting of an opera production is described in this article.

CONGER, MAYBELLE. "Drama—Liaison between School and Community," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXX, No. 6 (March, 1959), 12.

The writer presents many and varied possibilities wherein school and community can benefit and help one another through the dramatic department. Her experience in this *drama liaison* has covered twenty-one years. Success will result if drama teachers, "can accomplish some of the objectives set forth" by the author.

SERGER, SHERMAN L. "A Play Publisher Speaks," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXX, No. 6 (March, 1959), 13.

The author answers the question, "What are the ingredients necessary for the publication of a play?" In order to do so, the writer looks at certain limitations in play production and reviews the field for the past fifty years.

TRUMBO, CHARLES R. and POLLYANN. "Pageant Committees at Work," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXX, No. 6 (March, 1959), 20.

The writers stress cooperation and harmony as being all important during the "spade work" period on a pageant production. The various duties and responsibilities of business manager, scene manager, costume committee, advertising chairman, pageant chairman are then examined.

REED, FRIEDA E. "Theatre for Children," *Dramatics*, Vol. XXX, No. 6 (March, 1959), 22.

The young should become aware of good theatre and the immediate values derived from it.

Theatre going should be stimulated and the standards of high school productions raised.

STADELMAN, SARA LEE. "The Chorus of the National Greek Theatre," *Drama Critique*, Vol. 1, No. 3 (November, 1958), 19-26.

The author, having attended performances of the National Greek Theatre at Epidaurus and the Odeon Herodes in Athens, gives an illuminating analysis and criticism of the chorus of the National Theatre. She confines her criticism to two productions *Medea* and *Oedipus Rex*.

CASPER, LEONARD. "The God Mask of MacLeish," *Drama Critique*, Vol. 1, No. 3 (November, 1958).

For those who have read or seen Archibald MacLeish's *J.B.*, this brief criticism should raise some stimulating arguments.

HERMAN, GEORGE. "A Plan for Playwrights in Residence," *Drama Critique*, Vol. 1, No. 3 (November, 1958).

According to the author, "Subsidized writing-on-assignment has produced our greatest theatre; and being a writer-director-teacher makes for a better writer, a more artistic writer." Colleges and universities should have one person on its staff who was essentially a writer in order to stimulate more and better material for the theatre.

DAVIS, EUGENE C. "Highlights in Little Theatre," *Players*, Vol. 35, No. 7 (April, 1959), 153-154.

The author presents the highlights of his study on community theatres of the South. He was most impressed by their physical plants, the quality in acting, directing, technical production and business methods.

RUSSELL, DOUGLASS A. "Costuming Macbeth," *Players*, Vol. 35, No. 7 (April, 1959), 130-131.

In costuming *Macbeth* the author analyzes four specific productions with the purpose of answering this problem: "How to capture the barbaric mood of the tragedy without doing violence to the sophistication of the poetic imagery and the moral philosophy of the play."

SMITH, LORETTA W., SAPIENZA, PHILLIP, SWEENEY, KATHERINE. "What Is Happening To Broadway?" *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 1 (February, 1959), 20-23.

Professor Smith and two of her graduate students investigate the trend of the current

Broadway theatre. They point out that typical plays are "peopled with a strange assortment of characters, plays that delve into a variety of psychological problems, plays that are sordid and almost plotless in construction and practically devoid of humor."

MCINTYRE, BARBARA M. "Creative Dramatics," *Education*, Vol. 79, No. 8 (April, 1959), 495-498.

The writer discusses the problem of choosing material for Creative Dramatics. An investigation was conducted by the author in 1948 entitled, "A Preliminary Study and Evaluation of Suitable Stories for Creative Dramatics" wherein attempts were made to answer these three questions: (1) What types of story do children prefer for creative dramatics? (2) Do stories selected by adult evaluation agree with the child evaluation? (3) What qualities present in a story make for successful playing?

RADIO—FILM—TELEVISION

BUEHRING, LEO E. "Hagerstown Experiment After Two Years," *The Education Digest*, Vol. XXIV, No. 9 (May, 1959), 5-8.

The Hagerstown Experiment in educational television has the attention and interest of all educators. The experiment is to continue for five years and the following points are some of the conclusions reached after two years: "(1) Proper use is basic; (2) The television set is a machine, not a teacher; (3) Television is only one of several instructional devices; (4) Television can be a unique aid to instruction; (5) Television has limitations; (6) Team work among teachers is stimulated; (7) Viewing is an active experience; (8) Telecasting is an experience shared in common."

SAMPLE, WILLIAM D. "Educational TV and the Small College," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 1 (February, 1959), 24-26.

Four major questions are answered by the writer in his discussion of educational television in the small college. In conclusion, he feels that parents and teachers must not prevent the use of television but see that it is used "properly, constructively and purposefully."

HILLIARD, ROBERT L. "Student Views of Educational Television," *Today's Speech*, Vol. VII, No. 1 (February, 1959).

The opinions and suggestions made by a group of students at Adelphi College are presented in this report. The areas covered are:

"(1) Broadened Educational Resources (2) Heightened Quality of In-Class Education (3) Expanded Educational Opportunities (4) Extended Education and Service (5) More Effective Intra-School Cooperation.

TUCKER, DUANE E. "Radio Drama and Rehabilitation," *Players Magazine*, Vol. 35, No. 7 (April, 1958), 154-155.

The author gives an account of a series of radio programs presented by the MacClaren School for Boys at Woodburn, Oregon. The main purpose of the program was to inform and gain public understanding for these boys who are juvenile delinquents. The rehabilitation of these boys through such a program is also discussed.

DOHERTY, VICTOR W. "ETV How Sound an Investment?" *The American School Board Journal*, Vol. 138, No. 5 (May, 1959), 29-31.

Two major conclusions seem to have been reached in the study of educational television to date: (1) TV will not replace the class room teacher and (2) TV can serve as a supplement to elementary and high school teaching. Other values of ETV are examined by the author, but from this article it seems evident that each community should weigh carefully any action taken to support ETV.

LEWIS, PHILIP. "TV's Exciting Developments," *Audiovisual Guide*, Vol. 38, No. 5 (May, 1959), 236-239.

Although educational television has made tremendous strides in the last decade, televised instruction projects through out the country reveal basic problems that are still unsolved. Answers to many of these problems are reported in this article.

REED, PAUL C. "Only One Stop For Instructional Materials," *Audiovisual Guide*, Vol. 38, No. 5 (May, 1959), 240-241.

In Rochester's new East High School, a library has been designed to serve as an "instructional materials resource center." The innovations and architectural solution for audiovisual problems are described in this report.

YOUNG, COLIN. "The Hollywood War of Independence," *Film Quarterly*, Vol. XII, No. 3 (Spring, 1959), 4-15.

The problems confronting the independent film maker in America are formidable. Men such as Martin Ritt, Stanley Kulnick, Denis and Terry Sanders are the pioneers "trying to cut their way through the gloss and timidity and conventions of Hollywood."

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Jon Hopkins, *Editor*

SPEECH PREPARATION. C-B Educational Films, 690 Market St., San Francisco 4. 1958. 16 minutes. Sound. Black & White. No charge for preview print. Educational consultant, Dr. Karl F. Robinson, Northwestern U.

Two national surveys indicated that a new film in the area of speech preparation was more desired at the moment than a new film in any other phase of speech.

To satisfy this expressed need the producers focused the film on six fundamentals in the process of preparing to fulfill a speaking engagement. The six are: (1) determining the purpose of the speech; (2) adapting the speech in terms of the audience and the occasion; (3) selecting and narrowing the subject; (4) securing information: research; (5) organizing and outlining the materials; (6) style and practice.

Two student speeches are evaluated by the teacher with the fundamentals above serving as criteria for judgment.

The descriptive brochure on this film describes it as, "... a cogent presentation of the subject which merits review." This writer is in complete agreement.

J. H.

THE STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA COMMUNICATIONS SKILLS KINESCOPES. 30 minutes. Sound. Black and White. Available through the Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction, Extension Division, State University of Iowa, Iowa City. Rental, \$2.50.

In 1957-58 the State University of Iowa compared experimentally the effectiveness of three methods of teaching their Communications Skills course. One of the methods was the presentation of the basic principles by "experts" through the use of film recordings of television programs (kinescopes), supplemented by discussion of these principles and their application in performances under the guidance and criticism of the regular classroom instructor.

Twenty-eight of the kinescopes have now been made available to all teachers of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Several of the kinescopes are reviewed below. Additional reviews will appear in forthcoming issues.

THE NATURE OF COMMUNICATION. Lecturer: Professor Harold Shiffler, State University of Iowa.

ADJUSTMENT TO COMMUNICATION. Lecturer: Professor Robert L. Gregg, State University of Iowa.

Professor Shiffler begins with comments about the importance of communication, then, with the aid of a flannel board, he talks about some of the problems encountered in getting "a map of ideas" from the mind of the communicator to the mind of the receptor. He classifies barriers to communication as "semantic" and "presentational." Among the latter are: in speaking, distracting bodily behavior and poor voice; in writing, poor spelling; in listening, distracting noise; in reading, lack of concentration.

Professor Gregg speaks about the fears and tensions afflicting the student faced with a speaking or writing assignment. He talks of the causes of the fears and suggests that to overcome them the student must know his subject, understand and appreciate his audience, understand tension, and gain experience.

These lectures are designed for a college course in communication. Both lecturers are good examples of effective communication, both put an emphasis upon speech. Neither the subject matter nor the treatment is unusual. If, for variety, you want a guest lecturer on these subjects, Professors Shiffler and Gregg are able and, on these films, available.

VICTOR M. POWELL
Wabash College (Indiana)

IDEAS IN COMMUNICATION. Lecturer: Dr. Orville A. Hitchcock, S. U. I.

In *Ideas in Communication* Prof. Hitchcock tells young speech students how to get ideas for the subjects of their speeches. What Hitchcock says is what every speech teacher tries to make inexperienced students realize. The presentation of these ideas in this kinescope, however, is new and fresh and convincing.

Why are mature speakers asked to make

speeches? Because they are authorities or experts and are qualified, or have the right, to speak. But the young speaker often feels that he knows too little about a subject to justify his talking about it. Hitchcock points out that no subject is too trivial or insignificant if one "really gets into it"—even shoes or pens or popcorn.

Sometimes the personal experience of the student will furnish all the material needed for a talk such as on the hydraulic brake on automobiles, on cuts of beef, or on swimming the breast stroke. At other times a student may need and wish to add to his experience by learning from others—as, for example, in preparing a speech on the causes of the Civil War. Or, perhaps, he may present a subject about which he has earned the right to talk by mastering facts and information in a college course.

In showing clearly and convincingly that any student can find ample subject matter for speeches in his own experience, and in showing that ideas rooted in his own experience can be developed by learning from others, Hitchcock should convince any beginner that, while his speaking is a challenge, he nonetheless has the necessary equipment with which to meet it.

Technically, the kinescope could be improved. The first part needs more animation; varying the angles of the camera while the speaker lectures to the lens is not enough. The essence of any successful television performance, educational or otherwise, is action, and not merely trying to photograph sound. The presentation gains life, however, when the speaker goes to the blackboard to illustrate the fact that while we arrive at ideas inductively we present them deductively, and to explain that in showing how to hold a golf club properly we use carefully selected evidence.

The lack of action in the first part of the kinescope, however, does not detract from the considerable value this kinescope would have if used in many speech courses.

BENSON S. ALLEMAN
Chairman, Department of the Arts
Bellarmine College

FRAMEWORK OF IDEAS. Lecturer: Dr. Carl A. Dallinger, S. U. I.

Prof. Dallinger explains in *Framework of Ideas* why the outline of a speech is the vital core of the wire of communication between the speaker and the listener. If, as Wilbur

Schramm has pointed out, the best communication results when the sender and the receiver are brought into the best possible "tune," the outline is the instrument in the hand of the transmitting engineer and the dial knob in the hand of the receiver that make any tuning, and especially good tuning, possible.

Prof. Dallinger's explanation of the structure of the outline, and of its major parts and their purposes, is orthodox, conventional, and sound. But he gives age-old and proven ideas of Aristotle and successive writers about public speaking, and of teachers of speech, vividness and vitality.

The illustrations that Dallinger uses are excellent. Through his clarity he fixes in memory the value of the outline to the listeners, especially in point of discerning ideas, of comprehension, and of retention. A good outline makes possible the taking of good notes easily, obviating the feeling of compulsion to write feverishly. Of course a good outline is invaluable to the speaker in transmitting a clear message. Perhaps there are college professors who might profit from realizing this truth.

Technically, this kinescope deserves commendation. The photography is superior. The talk is well produced because there is life and action throughout. Dallinger's use of visual materials contributes to the flow of action to make a strong and lasting impression. This kinescope should convince any student that well organized material is vitally necessary for spoken communication to be effective.

BENSON S. ALLEMAN
Bellarmine College

OBSTRUCTIONS TO CRITICAL LISTENING AND READING. Lecturer: Dr. William Eller.

The film *Obstructions to Critical Listening and Reading* is a photographed lecture outlining the values of critical reading and listening and illustrating the environmental and personal factors which block good listening and reading.

The wonderful technique of the cinema should not be wasted merely recording a lecture. The outline of the film's content read and explained by the classroom teacher would be less expensive and more effective—the good educational film must be more imaginative. The film lecturer has a poor voice and a weak lecture technique. The outline of the film presentation lacks unity and coherence. The very up-to-date illustrations, i.e. Marlboro advertisements, will soon become outdated and

have no meaning. The timing is poor. Part three, "What to do about the blocks to listening and reading," is allotted not more than two minutes of this 30 minute film. The camera techniques are very unimaginative.

The reviewer cannot recommend the rental or purchase of this film.

CHARLES TAYLOR

Fresno State College (California)
Fresno, Calif.

DISCUSSION, ITS BASIS AND FORMS. Lecturer: Dr. Robert F. Ray.

This film is composed of a lecture on the fundamentals of group discussion and a student group demonstrating these fundamentals.

The lecture portion of the film covers such items as group discussion in democracy, the pattern or organization of discussion, types of discussion and qualities of the discussion participant. In general, the lecture as well as the student demonstration which follows, is concerned largely with the organization pattern and in this area the film makes positive contribution. The organization pattern is traced in terms of John Dewey's method of reflective thinking.

Perhaps, some of the weaknesses of the film may be traced to time limitations. The field of group discussion involves far more scope than is indicated in the rather superficial treatment offered in the film. Greater weaknesses in the film are the contradictions which arise between concepts presented in the lecture and the demonstration of these concepts by the student group. For example, the lecturer stresses the importance of research and preparation for discussion; however, little evidence or proof of any kind is offered throughout the course of the demonstration. The demonstration is little more than a "glorified gab session" which the lecturer had earlier warned against. In addition, other misconceptions could easily arise by observing the film. The techniques of leadership displayed in the group presentation leave much to be desired. The group makes no attempt to establish criteria for their solutions and they violate other basic concepts.

In general, I believe the film has serious

limitations for classroom usage. It would require much explanation on the part of the teacher both to supplement the film and to clear up misconceptions that might arise. Technical aspects of the film are unimaginative, the visual aids used are sometimes not too clearly explained and improvement could be made in factors of attention.

HOWARD HOLLADAY

Los Angeles State College

THE ARGUMENTATIVE SITUATION. Lecturer: Orville Hitchcock.

This film is a recording of a lecture by Orville Hitchcock of the University of Iowa. If viewed by college or high school students it should give them invaluable assistance in organizing the argumentative speech. The lecture covers every problem that might arise in preparing this type of speech.

First, the argumentative situation is defined. Mr. Hitchcock defines it as "a calm, rational discussion of the world's problems." He says that it is not a wrangle between children nor should it be confused with debate. There are two forms of the argumentative situation; oral and written.

Second, problems arise out of differences of opinion. Problems are not static as a new age always gives rise to new problems.

Third, Mr. Hitchcock shows how a student should carry out the analysis of a problem in preparing himself to speak. This is one of the strong features of the lecture. How to find issues is stressed. Is there a problem? What is its nature? What is the best solution? How can it be put into operation? Problems are classified as fact, policy and value. There is a great deal of emphasis placed on analysis of the problem; definition of terms, determining the scope of the problem, and locating of the issues. There is a complete six part summary of the lecture.

This lecture is excellent. It is well organized and thus easy to follow. It is replete with examples from the student's own background. The transitions and summaries are excellent.

M. HAROLD MIKLE

Alma College (Michigan)

THE BULLETIN BOARD

Ordean G. Ness, *Editor*

CONFERENCES, CONVENTIONS, FESTIVALS, INSTITUTES, AND WORKSHOPS

The Pennsylvania State Speech Association's Twentieth Anniversary Convention will be held October 16 and 17 at the Sheraton Hotel in Philadelphia.

Northwestern University completed its twentieth annual National High School Institute in Speech on August 1, 1959. In attendance were 201 juniors from 35 states, including 90 persons in debate, 82 in drama, and 29 in radio-TV-film. Of particular interest was an experimental project in the creative use of film under the direction of Shirley Clarke, internationally recognized for her distinctive work in film making. Students wrote, shot, edited, and put the sound track on their film, which was shown at the conclusion of the course. Drama students produced eight final projects in Cahn Auditorium. Debaters studied the 1959-60 high school questions and ran a championship tournament, as well as demonstration programs in discussion, extempore speaking, and oratory. A faculty of 40 high school and college teachers taught and supervised the program.

The Speech Teachers of the Eastern Zone (of the New York State Teachers Association) will meet in special sessions on October 16. Dr. George McCalmon of Cornell University will speak to the Drama section, and the Therapy section will join the International Council for Exceptional Children to hear Dr. Jon Eisenon of Queens College.

The National Catholic Theatre Conference conducted its twelfth biennial convention at Notre Dame University August 18 to 20. Rev. Gabriel Stapleton, SDS, of Lancaster, New York, is president of the Conference, and is the first person of the organization to be elected to a second term as president. Other officers are: Sister Marguerite of Mercy College, Detroit, vice-president; Sister Immaculate of St. Joseph's Academy, Wheeling, W. Va., secretary; and Brother Julius Herbert of Christian Brothers College, St. Louis, treasurer.

The Institute for Education by Radio-Television met in Columbus, Ohio, May 6 to 9. The conference theme was "Broadcasting's Social Responsibility." Featured speakers included Frank Stanton, president of the Columbia Broadcasting System, Senator Warren G. Magnuson, and Davis Susskind.

The Pre-college Institute in Speech and Hearing Therapy was scheduled at Purdue University July 6 to 10. This project, sponsored by the Psi Iota Xi Sorority, gives high school girls an opportunity to learn of the vocational opportunities offered by a career in speech and hearing therapy. Girls heard lectures and participated as cadet therapists in the clinic serving over one hundred speech and/or hearing handicapped children.

Northwestern University presented four distinctive symposia as part of its summer session, concluded August 14. First was a special offering, Contemporary Issues in Speech Education, in which 22 leaders coordinated by Dr. Karl Robinson, lectured upon current problems in the field. Guest lecturers included John Dietrich, President of the SAA; J. Jeffery Auer, Executive Vice President of the SAA; Gladys Borchers, Professor of Speech at the University of Wisconsin; Albert Becker, Professor of Speech at Western Michigan University; Ralph Nichols, Second Vice-President of the SAA; Wanda Mitchell, Evanston Township High School; and Ralph McGee, New Trier Township High School.

The Department of Radio-TV-Film presented a Special Symposium in the Issues of Broadcasting, co-ordinated by Dr. Martin Maloney. Speakers included the Honorable John Doerfer, Eric Barnouw, Gilbert Seldes, Hugh M. Beville, Jr., John O'Brien, Reuel Denney, Richard Gaylor, Samuel Bightman, and Boris Krylov.

The Department of Interpretation offered its third summer symposium-on Forms and Materials for Use in Interpretation. Guest lecturers were French Fogle, Paul Muesche, and Edward Nehls. Dr. Wallace Bacon was in charge.

The Department of Communicative Disorders presented a symposium on Neurological Damage and its Relationship to Communicative Disorders. Dr. David Rutherford coordinated the program.

The Theatre and Public Address sections of the Purdue Speech Department offered two consecutive workshops during the past summer. The Theatre Workshop for high school teachers and high school students, held June 22 to July 10, included the complete approach to problems of high school dramatic productions. Teachers were able to establish undergraduate or graduate credit for their work in the institute. The Public Address section held its intensive workshop July 13 to August 2. Limited to teachers only, the course included problems of teaching public address, debate, discussion, and public speaking contests. Credit was offered for this workshop.

The second annual speech training conference entitled "Business Communications" was held at the University of Michigan in March for area purchasing agents. Content for the one-day session included public speaking, persuasion, brain-storming, conference techniques, and participation in radio and TV programs.

Kent State University observes its semi-centennial during the academic year 1959-60. Highlights from the School of Speech activities in the observance include special functions sponsored by each of the departmental areas. The University Theatre, under the general theme "Fifty Years in the American Theatre," will devote its entire public program of six major productions to plays from the pens of leading 20th Century American playwrights. In addition, the Beta Psi cast of Alpha Psi Omega will sponsor a series of readings of other plays in this same period. The University radio station, WKSU-FM will broadcast a series of 30-minute dramatic documentary programs portraying the history of Kent State. The Buckeye Forensics Union and the Kent State chapter of Pi Kappa Delta will sponsor a public debate each quarter with representatives from neighboring colleges and universities, and an intra-mural public speaking contest on a topic relevant to the semi-centennial theme. The KSU Speech and Hearing Clinic and the local chapter of Sigma Alpha Eta will sponsor a public address by a prominent authority in the field of pathology

and audiology, who will trace the history and development of this field over the past half-century.

The fine Arts Festival, held April 13 to 18 at Southwest Texas State Teachers College (San Marcos), featured Mordecai Gorelik as guest speaker, the Ryder and Frankel Dance Company, and *Cocklebur*, an original play by Ramsey Yelvington.

"Teaching of Speech" was the subject of the 1959 Summer Speech Institute held on the University of Wisconsin Campus July 2. Senator Wayne Morse of Oregon, who at one time taught speech at the Universities of Wisconsin and Minnesota, addressed the morning session. Prof. Donald K. Smith, of the University of Minnesota, discussed contemporary developments in speech pedagogy. The afternoon program included demonstrations by four outstanding speech teachers from Wisconsin high schools.

The Second Annual High School Drama Institute will be held in the University of Wisconsin Union Theatre in Madison, on Saturday, December 12, in connection with the production by the Wisconsin Players of Friedrich Schiller's famous romantic drama, *William Tell*. The play will be presented in a new translation by Prof. Ronald E. Mitchell, who will also direct the production. The full program will be announced early in the fall, and information will be circulated to all high schools in Wisconsin. Forty-four schools were represented at the First Annual Institute last year, with a total attendance of 1100.

A feature of the 1959 Summer Session at the University of Wisconsin was a four-week intensive institute on the rehabilitation of the adult stutterer. The course was organized around the appearances of eight visiting specialists, each of whom represented a specific point of view with respect to the problem. Each visitor gave two lectures, interviewed a stutterer, and led a group discussion about his lecture and interview. Therapy demonstrations were given each day by UW staff members over closed circuit TV. In addition, resident faculty from speech, linguistics, psychology, physiology, neuropsychology and psychiatry presented background lectures in preparation for the visitors' contributions. Visiting lecturers were Wendell Johnson, Jon Eisenson, Joseph G. Sherman,

Oliver Bloodstein, Albert T. Murphy, Bryng Bryngelson, Charles Van Riper, and Stanley H. Ainsworth. The institute was co-sponsored by the Federal Office of Vocational Rehabilitation.

CURRICULA AND FACILITIES ADDITIONS

Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, reports the completion of a modern building which will house speech therapy, audiology, and the student health services. Complete facilities for hearing-aid evaluation are included in the new installation.

The Library of the University of Illinois, Chicago Undegraduate Division, purchased the entire library, including cases, of the late E. C. Mabie. The items have not yet been catalogued, but it is estimated that the collection includes 1400 books on speech and theatre and 700 paperback plays, as well as periodicals.

Work on the new Speech-Music Center is progressing steadily on the Kent State University campus. When completed, the building will be the largest on the campus, and will contain a classroom wing, practice rooms for music, a recital hall, radio and television studios, and a theater seating 575. The building is scheduled for occupancy in the fall of 1960.

The Speech and Hearing Clinic at Northwestern State College, Tahlequah, Oklahoma, has moved into new quarters exclusively devoted to the clinic's use. The building was equipped with a gift from the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration. The Northeastern Clinic, directed by Dr. Earl W. Blank, serves the northeastern Oklahoma area. In addition, it has agreements with the Vocational Rehabilitation Division, the Crippled Children's Commission, the Oklahoma School for the Blind, the Sequoyah Vocational Indian School, and the public schools of the city. Don Rampp has been added to the staff as supervisor of clinical practice and audiologist.

The Lamar Tech (Beaumont, Texas) Theatre has been completely remodelled and acoustically treated. In addition, a \$600,000 Fine Arts Building is now under construction and is expected to be ready for use this Fall. Besides classroom and office space, the building will include a radio-TV studio and a combination recital hall and theatre which will have facilities for holding intimate theatre, musical, proscenium and arena productions.

The Speech Communication Laboratory of the Department of Speech, University of Washington, directed by Orville Pence, produced its first Ph.D. in Experimental Public Address this past year. The candidate was Thomas Scheidel. Three additional students are currently working in the laboratory.

FORENSICS

The Committee on Discussion and Debate Materials of the National University Extension Association has announced that the problem chosen for the national high school series is as follows: "What policy in labor-management relations will best serve the people of the United States?" The problem comprehends three propositions for debate and three questions for discussion:

Discussion Questions:

1. How can the public interest best be protected in labor-management disputes?
2. What should be the responsibilities of labor and management in solving the current labor-management problems?
3. What should be the responsibilities of government in solving the current labor-management problems?

Debate Propositions:

1. Resolved: That Section 14b of the National Labor Relations Act should be repealed.
2. Resolved: That the federal government should substantially increase its regulation of labor unions.
3. Resolved: That the federal government should require arbitration of labor disputes in all basic industries.

At the annual conference sponsored by the Committee in Washington, D. C., next December, representatives of state leagues affiliated with the Committee will choose a single debate proposition and a single discussion question for the remainder of the academic year.

High school speech teachers are reminded of the many services offered at no or minimal cost by the Committee. Inquiries may be directed to Dr. Bower Aly, Executive Secretary, Committee on Discussion and Debate Materials, 209 Villard Hall, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon.

Entries for the Ninth Annual National Contest in Public Discussion should be sent to Dr. Wayne N. Thompson, University of Illinois, Navy Pier, Chicago 11, not later than Novem-

ber 15, 1959. He will send shipping instructions, and the tape recordings, which constitute the entries in the contest, should be ready for shipment by December 1.

All universities, colleges, and junior colleges are eligible to participate. Each institution chooses a "team" of four or five undergraduates, and each team plans and records a twenty-five minute program of the discussion type. The topic is the national question. Full details can be secured by writing to Dr. Thompson.

Fresno State College was the winner in a field of thirty-five in the 1958-59 contest. Bob Jones University was second, and Purdue was third. The finals were judged in conjunction with the annual meeting of the Central States Speech Association. The winning tape is available through the DAVI National Tape Repository, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio. The cost is one dollar, and the applicant must furnish his own tape.

The Division of Speech Arts of Fresno (Calif.) State College sponsored three forensic tournaments during the past academic year. The first, held in November, was the College's first collegiate invitational tourney, at which 33 schools from six states were represented. A high school forensic event was held in April. And in March, the College hosted the West Point Elimination Tournament for the district comprising California, Nevada, Arizona, and Utah. Howard Holladay, Director of Forensics, was in charge of arrangements.

Because of the increasing importance of summer course work and the total absence of competitive forensic activity in the summer, the University of Pittsburgh conducted its first annual summer tournament July 24 and 25. The topic for the 1959 event was "Resolved: That the United States should withdraw its military forces from Western Europe in return for Russian withdrawal from the Satellite countries." Eligibility was extended to undergraduates and to graduate students who have not completed more than two years of post-baccalaureate work.

The Department of Speech of the University of Washington will hold its twenty-second annual High School Festival this Fall. Students from Seattle and other western Washington areas will participate in oral reading, group discussion and extempore speaking activities.

The University of Washington will continue to structure its forensic program around (1) problem-solving debates before local civic, service, and school groups, (2) intercollegiate tournaments, and (3) special events, including televised forensics, parliamentary debates, and home-and-home debates using a variety of topics and formats.

IN THE CLINICS

Fresno (Calif.) State College held a ten-day workshop for speech therapists in August, which was devoted to an intensive study of social, medical, and psychological involvements in selected speech problems. The case work-up approach was followed, with particular attention given to staffing problems.

As a result of several years of clinical and experimental research, a multiple-choice word list suitable for testing auditory, visual, and combined auditory-visual intelligibility has been developed at the University of Illinois Hearing Center. The recorded auditory test has been found to give rapid and reliable estimates of listening errors. Commercial disc and tape recordings are being prepared for distribution to interested persons. Those involved in the development of the test include Charles Hutton, E. Thayer Curry, and Mary Beth Armstrong.

The North Dakota Speech and Hearing Journal is now in its second year of publication. Sponsored by the North Dakota Speech and Hearing Council, the magazine presents reports of research and training activities from therapists and clinics throughout the state. Frederick E. Garbee of the University of North Dakota is the editor.

The Division of Speech Pathology and Audiology at Kent State University sponsored the following conferences during 1958-59: the first annual conference in Ohio for supervisors of speech and hearing therapy programs in Northeast Ohio schools; the first pre-training institute for high school seniors of Northeast Ohio interested in speech and hearing therapy as a career; and the annual conference for public health nurses in Northeast Ohio.

A total approach to the problem of children who are retarded readers will be taken in an inter-disciplinary pilot study beginning in the Reading Laboratory of the University of Pitts-

burgh's School of Education. In this program each child participating will be tested in a wide range of areas in addition to reading. Other examinations will include thorough psychological, brain, eye, hearing, and speech testing. A complete physical examination will be given each child, and both child and parent will be interviewed by a social case worker. An endocrinologist will also be available to conduct testing of cases referred to him. From eight to ten students classified as retarded readers will make up the experimental group, with an equal number of children identified as normal readers acting as a "control" unit.

"Clinical observations of children we have tested have led us to believe that there are causes, heretofore undetected, which may contribute to reading or educational retardation," says Dr. Donald L. Cleland, director of the Laboratory. "At the conclusions of the study, we expect to be able to examine our findings in the light of the total behavioral patterns of the child, rather than in narrow areas."

ON STAGE

At Fresno (Calif.) State College (1958-59): *The Circle* by W. Somerset Maugham, Phillip Walker, director; *Oedipus King of Thebes* by Sophocles, Alvin S. Kaufman, director; *The Diary of Anne Frank* by Goodrich and Hackett, Mr. Kaufman, director; and *Tartuffe* by Moliere, Mr. Walker, director. The faculty technical staff for all productions included Richard Arnold, scenery, Gaylord Graham, lighting, Jeanette Pratt, costume and make-up, and Janet Loring, acting coach. In addition, two full length masters degree thesis productions and a series of concert readings of great plays were presented.

At San Jose (Calif.) State College (Spring, 1959): *The Sleeping Prince* by Terence Rattigan, Elizabeth Loeffler, director; *The Confidential Clerk* by T. S. Eliot, Jack Neeson, director; *Lute Song* by Kao-Tong-Kia, Paul Davee, director; and *King Midas and the Golden Touch* by C. B. Chorpennig, a Children's Theatre production, John Kerr, director.

At Carthage (Ill.) College (1958-59): *Pygmalion* by George Bernard Shaw, Shandy Holland, director; *Christ in the Concrete City* by P. W. Turner, George Bedard, director; *A Sleep of Prisoners* by Christopher Fry, Mr. Holland, director; and *Antigone* by Jean Anouilh, Mr. Bedard, director.

At Northern Illinois University (DeKalb) (1958-59): *Ah Wilderness!* by Eugene O'Neill,

Hedda Gabler, by Hendrik Ibsen, and *The Crucible* by Arthur Miller.

At Southern Illinois University (Carbondale) (Summer, 1959): *Private Lives* by Noel Coward, *Glass Menagerie* by Tennessee Williams, *The Copperhead* by Augustus Thomas, *Morning's at Seven* by Paul Osborn, and *The Most Happy Fella* by Frank Loesser, produced with the Summer Opera Workshop.

At the University of Michigan (Summer, 1959): *The Boyfriend* by Sandy Wilson, William Halstead, director; *Look Back in Anger* by John Osborne, Hugh Z. Norton, director; *The Rivals* by Richard Sheridan, Dr. Halstead, director; *Waltz of the Toreadors* by Jean Anouilh, Dr. Norton, director. Dr. Jack Bender of the Speech Department and Dr. Josef Blatt of the Music Department will combine to direct an opera for the last production of the season.

At Lamar State College of Technology (Texas): *Julius Caesar* directed by Cecil D. Jones, Jr.; a Faculty Reader's Theatre of three one-acts directed by Ted Skinner; *Carmen*, staged by Mr. Skinner; *H. M. S. Pinafore*, directed by Mr. Jones; a Religious Arena Theatre production, directed by Mr. Jones; and student directed one-acts.

At Southwest Texas State Teachers College (San Marcos) (1958-59): Synge's *Playboy of the Western World*; Quintero's *A Sunny Morning*; Fry's *A Phoenix Too Frequent*; and Thurber's *Many Moons*.

At the University of Wisconsin (Summer, 1959): *Two Gentlemen of Verona*, *Detective Story*, *The Cocktail Party*, and *Glass Menagerie*. In addition, there were a studio play and a play reading directed by students.

ON THE AIR

A course in great books was offered by Fresno State College via television during the fall semester, and a course in contemporary philosophy was presented in the Spring. Both courses were under the supervision of Edwin Lombard of the Division of Speech Arts.

Television and radio broadcasters from seventeen nations met this summer and will meet this fall at the University of Southern California in a seminar sponsored by the U. S. Department of State. Aims of the seminar are to develop understanding of American life and American broadcasting. From June 27 to October 24 the visitors are studying, observing, and traveling under individualized plans coordinated

by Dr. Robert E. Summers, associate professor of Telecommunications. Meeting at the University will be broadcasters from Argentina, Brazil, Burma, Ceylon, Columbia, Ethiopia, Finland, India, Iran, Malaya, Mexico, Morocco, Nepal, Nigeria, Pakistan, Rhodesia, and Taiwan.

The University of Illinois, Chicago Professional Colleges, has prepared a twenty-five minute color film entitled "Film on Professional Education in Health Sciences." The film, which deals with medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, and nursing, is suitable for high school seniors who may be interested in these fields. The film may be obtained from the Office of Public Information, University of Illinois, 1453 West Polk, Chicago.

A recent survey reveals that Kent State University's low-power FM station, WKSU-FM, is reaching 39.9 percent of the potential FM audience in the Kent, Ohio, area. Serious music programs and university sports coverage received highest listener ratings.

The Readers' Workshop at the University of Washington, directed by Wilma Grimes, is in the midst of another busy school year. In addition to the weekly series over radio station KXA, the Workshopers present programs over station KING-TV and in campus auditoriums.

FM station operators from around Wisconsin met at their third FM Station Clinic at the University of Wisconsin May 12. A fourth meeting has been called for September. About 40 people attended the clinic which is intended to provide opportunities for the exchange of information which can be useful to stations in telling the FM story and in improving their own operations.

FACULTY ADDITIONS AND APPOINTMENTS

At Carthage (Ill.) College. Shandy Holland, chairman of the Department of Speech.

At De Paul University. Albert T. Martin, chairman of the Speech Department.

At Northwestern University. George A. Sanborn, assistant professor of speech; Davis R. Dickson, assistant professor of speech correction; Charles J. Gaupp, assistant professor of dramatic production; Earl R. Harford, Jr., assistant professor of audiology; Mary Louise

Hall, instructor in dramatic production; Doyle G. McKinney, instructor in speech education; John E. Van Meter, interim instructor in dramatic literature.

At Kent State University. William Weidner, supervisor of public-school training of speech and hearing therapists.

At Lamar State College of Technology (Texas). Cecil D. Jones, Jr., assistant professor of speech and director of theatre activities.

At the University of Wisconsin. Theodore Clevenger, Jr., assistant professor in public address; John L. Peterson, assistant professor in clinical speech and hearing; and C. John Tolch, assistant professor in speech education.

PROMOTIONS

Keith Graham, Northwestern University to Assistant Professor.

Charles F. Hunter, Northwestern University, to Professor.

James F. Jerger, Northwestern University, to Associate Professor.

Russell Windes, Jr., Northwestern University, to Assistant Professor.

Ordean G. Ness, University of Wisconsin, to Associate Professor.

John Paul Jones, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, to Associate Professor.

PERSONALS

From Fresno State College. Don Wilson has been elected president of the California Speech and Hearing Association. . . . John W. Wright, Head of the Division of Speech Arts, has been elected second vice president of the Western Speech Association. . . . Alvin S. Kaufman has been appointed advertising manager of *Western Speech*.

From Northwestern University. Walter B. Scott, Jr., associate professor of dramatic literature, has been granted a one-year leave to accept a Fulbright in France.

From the University of Illinois. Clara Behringer, Lee Hultzen and Henry Mueller will return to the campus this fall after traveling in Europe. Miss Behringer and Prof. Mueller were on sabbatical and Prof. Hultzen taught at the University of Edinburgh.

From Southwest Missouri State College (Springfield). Harry Carlson was granted his Ph.D. from Ohio University in December.

From the New York City Public Schools. Dr. Helen M. Donovan was licensed after competitive examination and on December 23 was appointed Assistant Director of Speech Improvement for the City schools. For the past three years, she has served as Co-ordinator, Speech Program for Children with Retarded Mental Development, New York City Board of Education.

From Kent State University. Edward Hutchinson rejoins the staff of the Division of Pathology and Audiology after a year's leave of absence for study toward his doctorate at Ohio State University. . . . William H. Zucchero, of the University Theatre, has received a year's leave to study at Ohio State. . . . G. Harry Wright, director of the Theatre, conducted a group of thirty in a four-week flying tour of six European countries in July and August.

From the University of Oregon. Bower Aly has received a Distinguished Service Award from the National University Extension Association. The award was presented in recognition of his 26 years of service as executive secretary and editor of the Committee on Discussion and Debate Materials, a section of the association.

From Lamar State College of Technology (Texas). Dr. Ted Skinner, who has been serving as Head of the Department of Speech and Director of the Division of Fine and Applied Arts, retained his position in the Speech Depart-

ment and has been promoted to Dean of the newly created School of Fine and Applied Arts.

From the University of Southern California. Grace Walsh of Wisconsin State College at Eau Claire, and Charlotte Wells of the University of Missouri taught at the USC summer session of 1959.

From the University of Wisconsin. Gladys Borchers attended the convention of speech educators in Germany in June. . . . At that time also, Jonathan Curvin was the American educational theater representative to an international theater conference in Helsinki, Finland.

Professor John Stine, founder and chairman of the Department of Speech, De Paul University, died January 2, 1959. The family has invited contributions to a John Stine Memorial, a part of which is Mr. Stine's library which was given in its entirety to De Paul University. Substantial contributions to a John Stine Scholarship Fund are being made by the family and beneficiaries. It is anticipated that this will be a sustaining scholarship for outstanding speech students and will be awarded yearly in Mr. Stine's memory. Colleagues, students and friends of Mr. Stine may send contributions to the John Stine Scholarship Fund, in care of Miss Virginia Rutherford, College of Commerce, De Paul University, 25 East Jackson Boulevard, or to the office of Vice President Arthur J. Schaefer, De Paul University.